DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 235 564 EA 016 123

AUTHOR Runkel, Philip J.; Harris, Pamela
TITLE Bibliography on Organizational Change in Schools: Selected, Annotated, and Indexed. Third Edition.
INSTITUTION Oregon Univ., Eugene. Div. of Educational Policy and Management.
PUB DATE 83
NOTE 295p.; Supersedes ED 098 678 and ED 147 973.
PUB TYPE Reference Materials - Bibliographies (131)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC12 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Administration; Annotated Bibliographies; Change; Classrooms; Educational Diagnosis; Educational Environment; Elementary Secondary Education; Evaluation; Innovation; Intervention; Leadership; Linking Agents; Motivation; *Organizational Change; *Organizational Development; Racial Relations; School Desegregation

ABSTRACT

This annotated bibliography was compiled to help educators understand organizational change in schools. The purpose is to provide ideas that will help avoid wasted effort and reduce heartbreak in the application of change processes. This third edition omits at least one-third of the entries from the second edition. Items dropped are those superseded by more up-to-date writings. Entries dated earlier than 1970 have been reduced to a minimum. The authors admit that their topic selection process is personal and arbitrary. They have tried to select writings from journals commonly available in university libraries and from books whose publishers' addresses may easily be found. The bibliography contains 662 annotated entries. The index identifies articles by topic, author's name, and areas of interest. (MD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED235564

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION
CENTER (ERIC)

☒ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

- Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Wynn DeBevoise

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Bibliography on Organizational Change in Schools: Selected, Annotated, and Indexed

by
Philip J. Runkel and Pamela Harris

EA 016 123

Bibliography on Organizational Change in Schools: Selected, Annotated, and Indexed

by
Philip J. Runkel and Pamela Harris

Third Edition

1983

Division of Educational Policy and Management
College of Education
University of Oregon
Eugene, Oregon 97403

PREFACE

This bibliography is compiled for persons who wish to understand organizational change in schools or who wish to enable it to happen more surely, with less wheel-spinning, and with fewer abortive attempts. No writing listed here, it is true, offers guaranteed repairs for a school, district, or school-community. None contains a recipe for sure-fire innovation. All, however, contain ideas that can help you avoid wasted effort and reduce heartbreak.

Use the Index!

The index appears on the colored pages. You can use its main section to find entries dealing with organizational functioning, intervention and change, environment, leadership, motivation, teams, organizational development, linking between research and practice or among organizations, classroom dynamics, effects of schooling, evaluation, and bibliographies. On page 284 you will also find special listings for other topics, including alternative schools, cadres of organizational specialists, citizens' involvement with schools, conflict, cooperation and competition, exercises, general systems, Hawthorne studies, criticisms of Herzberg's factors, higher education, human resource accounting, loose coupling, McClelland's motives, research on organizational development in schools, philosophy of science, satisfaction at work, students as organizational participants, and transitions.

The main (tabular) section of the index has three parts. The first part, coded "S" for "schools," lists 410 entries dealing with processes or structures in schools or districts. The second part, coded "SN" for "schools and non-schools," lists 71 entries each of which deals both with schools and non-schools, the latter including human service agencies, industry, government, military, church, and others. The third part, coded "N" for "non-schools," lists 181 entries. We think the writings we chose about non-school organizations contain ideas that can be translated to the school without an excessive amount of thought. The entries are organized alphabetically by the first author's last name. As a further aid, secondary authors, editors, authors mentioned in abstracts or annotations and authors of subentries are listed on page 286.

Selection

From this edition, we have omitted at least a third of the entries that appeared in the second edition--perhaps even half of them (we didn't count). As in the second edition, we dropped items we considered superseded by later writings. We tried to reduce the entries dated earlier than 1970 to a minimum. In our opinion, the study of organizational functioning and change is very active, and papers appear every year that add new ideas to old in ways that supplant earlier views. Many of the best papers of earlier periods are available in several excellent collections.

Some readers will wonder that we included certain topics, and others will wonder that we omitted certain topics. We think we have included a great deal of what anyone will want to consider who is interested in organizational change in schools. Beyond that, however, our selection is admittedly arbitrary, even personal.

We tried to select only writings published in journals commonly found in university libraries or in books whose publishers' addresses can easily be found. We found many items, however, that we wanted to bring to the attention of readers despite the fact that they are not so easy to lay hands on. In most instances, we have given additional information about fugitive literature to make it easier to locate a copy. Many of those entries bear the notation "ERIC order number . . . ." That means that a copy can be ordered from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, P.O. Box 190, Arlington, VA 22210.

The Entry

The first part of each entry gives the information for bibliographic reference and sometimes further information about availability--perhaps other places of publication, ERIC order number, or notice of an expanded or abridged version of the item. At the end of that information, some symbols in brackets almost always appear--such as [S, Int, OrF]. Those are the same symbols used in the main (tabular) part of the index. The example just given indicates that the item deals with intervention or change ("Int") and organizational functioning ("OrF") in schools ("S"). A complete explanation of the symbols is given on page 270.

Next, in a new paragraph, an abstract or annotation will appear. Sometimes the annotation consists simply of quotations from the item itself; in that case, we give the page numbers. Sometimes we borrowed comments from others, in which case we give the source. Sometimes we wrote annotations in our own words.

An entry sometimes contains a sub-entry. That is, we sometimes will refer you to another writing that is closely connected with the main entry. A sub-entry contains complete bibliographic information and does not appear in this bibliography as a main (numbered) entry. There are many sub-entries; we have not counted them.

In addition, we sometimes refer you to other entries in this bibliography. We do that with author and date, as "See Harris (1984)." You will find the entry in its alphabetical place.

Occasionally, you will find a note reading somewhat like this: "For writings on similar motives, see the entries listed for 'McClelland's (or similar) motives' at the end of the index." That note refers to the index of this bibliography, not the index of the item being annotated.

Credits

Frequently, instead of writing our own annotations, we have quoted from authors, editors, or publishers. We are grateful to the many copyright holders for allowing us to reprint passages. Almost all of them forwent their customary fees. More of our entries come from the Journal of Applied Behavioral Science than from any other single source, and we are therefore especially grateful to JAI Press for their permission to reprint passages in the entries numbered 6, 12, 87, 217, 270, 329, 359, 425, 470, 604, 614, 635, and 658. In the entries themselves, we have given credit to all copyright holders who required credit. We are grateful both to them and to those who did not require credit.

1. Abbott, Max G. The school as a social system: Indicators for change. In Socio-Economic Planning Science, (Vol. 2) New York: Pergamon, 1969; pp. 167-174. Reprinted in J.V. Baldridge and T. E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1975; pp. 176-186. [S, OrF]

   [The] more successful the school organization is in assessing accurately changing environmental forces, . . . the more successful will it be in resisting temporary pressures and transitory movements and in controlling its own directions. (author's abstract)

   Ten general propositions and accompanying hypotheses are presented regarding the relationships between organizational attributes and the initiation of search behavior.

2. Acker, Joan and Donald R. Van Houten. Differential recruitment and control: The sex structuring of organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1974, 19(2), 152-163. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

   Organizational theory and research has neglected analyses of sex differences in organizational behavior. When sex differences have been noted, they have been explained in terms of differences in biology, socialization, attitudes, and role commitment. On the basis of a reexamination of the Hawthorne studies and Crozier's work on two French bureaucracies, this paper suggests that sex differences may also be due to more structural factors such as differential recruitment and sex-linked control mechanisms. On that basis, the paper suggests a reinterpretation of the findings from those studies. The sex structuring of organizations needs to be taken into account along with organizational factors to arrive at fuller explanations of organizational phenomena. (author's abstract)

3. Adizes, Ichak. Organizational passages: Diagnosing and treating life cycle problems of organizations. Organizational Dynamics, 1979, 7(1), 3-25. [N, Int, OrF]

   Adizes's stages are courtship, infant, go-go, adolescent, prime, mature, aristocratic, early bureaucracy, bureaucracy, and death.

4. Albertson, D. Richard and Cecil J. Hannan. Interaction exercises for the classroom. Washington, DC: NTL Institute, 1971. [S, Cl, Int]

   This adaptation of "Interaction Briefs" from Today's Education, the journal of the National Education Association, is a second exercise packet to bring human interaction exercises to teachers at the elementary and secondary school levels.

5. Alderfer, Clayton. An empirical test of a new theory of human needs. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1969, 4, 142-175. [N, Mot]

   This study presents an alternative theory based on a three-fold conceptualization of human needs: existence, relatedness, and growth (E.R.G.). The theory does not assume lower-level satisfaction as a prerequisite for the emergence of higher-order needs. It does include propositions relating the impact of higher-order frustration to the strength of lower-order needs. Empirical tests of differential predictions among Maslow's theory, the simple frustrations hypothesis, and E.R.G. theory were conducted by a questionnaire study with 110 employees at several job levels from a bank. The results tended to support E.R.G. theory more than Maslow's theory or the simple frustration hypothesis. (author's abstract)

Alderfer reviewed the literature on Maslow's hierarchy and found only one direct empirical test; that test provided almost no support for Maslow's hypothesis that satisfaction of a lower need spurs striving for satisfaction of a higher need.

Expanded in C.P. Alderfer. _Existence, relatedness, and growth_. New York: Free Press, 1972.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for more annotation.

For other writings on motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

6. Alderfer, Clayton P. Improving organizational communication through long-term intergroup intervention. _Journal of Applied Behavioral Science_, 1977, 13(2), 193-210. [N, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

Organizations may be conceptualized as a set of interacting groups, differentiated according to task, hierarchy, and demographic characteristics of the members. The frequency, accuracy, and utility of _communication among groups_ within organizations affect and are affected by their _boundary permeability_ and _relationship mutality_. This study reports on the design, formulation, modification, and evaluation of a relatively new type of intergroup intervention--the creation of a "microcosm group" of 12 members from an organization of 250 members. Charged with improving communication among workgroups and hierarchical levels, the group was developed and maintained according to boundary and relationship concepts from open systems theory. It represented a microcosm of the system which addressed problems raised by both employees and management, assisted in a survey feedback intervention, and survived concerns raised by the union, middle management, and leadership succession at the top of the organization. There is evidence that it substantially facilitated communication about difficult issues within the organization, earned more confidence from employees and management, and improved its own functioning over time. At the same time, the intervention was experienced as quite stressful and conflictful for all parties participating, including top management, consultants, Communications Group members and other organization members whose work experiences were influenced by the group. (author's abstract, quoted by permission of JAI Press).

For a similar idea but a different organizational structure, see Zand (1974).

7. Alderfer, Clayton P. and L. Dave Brown. Learning from changing: Organizational diagnosis and development. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1975. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

It is the first systematic study of a private school where diagnosis and development were intimately related. . . . The reader will learn about resistances people will manifest and the difficulties that they will experience in becoming reflective about their own systems. -- from the introduction by Chris Argyris.

See also L. Dave Brown. Organizational change from the bottom up. Education and Urban Society, 1976 8(2), 159-171.

8. Alexander, Karl L., Martha Cook, and Edward L. McDill. Curriculum tracking and educational stratification: Some further evidence. American Sociological Review, 1978, 43(1), 47-66. [S, Cl, OrF]

This study found direct socioeconomic ascription to have an almost negligible effect on track placement. Socioeconomic characteristics of junior high students did, however, affect their later placement in tracks through their achievements, their goals, and the encouragements they got from others. Those factors predicted their placement in tracks in high school. In high school, in turn, the curricular placement of students affected their educational goals and achievement. Through educational goals and achievement, being in a college track increased the probability of applying to college and being admitted.

9. Alexander, W.E. and Joseph P. Farrell. Student participation in decision making. Toronto, Ontario: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1975. [S, OrF]

Reports on a study conducted in the Ontario high schools to ascertain the extent and quality of student participation in decision making. The researchers looked closely at student government, at what influences are operating in the high schools, into what students protest about, and at an effort to give students more individual guidance, the "house" system.

10. Alinsky, Saul D. Rules for radicals. New York: Vintage, 1971. [N, Int, Env]

The practical account by the famous community organizer.

11. Alschuler, Alfred S. School discipline: A socially literate solution. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1980. [S, Cl, Ef, Int]

The first part of the book presents a synopsis of Paulo Freire's philosophy. The second part shows how to resolve conflicts through dialogue, to raise consciousness, and to use the problem-solving process. The appendix tells how to develop a social literacy group and how to play the discipline game.

See also Alschuler, Atkins, Irons, McMullen, and Santiago-Wolpow (1977) and William Smith (1976).

12. Alschuler, Alfred, Soloman Atkins, R. Bruce Irons, Ronald McMullen, and Nellie Santiago-Wolpow. Collaborative problem solving as an aim of education in a democracy: The social literacy project. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1977, 13(3), 315-327. [S, Ef, Int]

According to Freire, a "central conflict" has at least three characteristics: 1) it subsumes numerous other conflicts in the situation; 2) it involves roles of unequal power; and 3) it reflects the central theme of our epoch, "domination." . . .

As a result of several thousand hours of informal study and reflection, this group identified "the battle for students' attention" as the central conflict. In this junior high school, most activities are controlled by educators and designed to capture students' attention and to focus it on the instructional material. Truant officers, bells, hall passes, tardy notes, role taking, hall monitoring, assignments, coaxing, cajoling, threatening, punishing, rewarding, and P.A. announcements ("May I have your attention?") are just a few of these activities (p. 320).

The discipline problem in this school, and in numerous other junior high schools, is a central conflict involving systematic domination and victimization of students. While the vast majority of specific discipline conflicts involve both students and teachers, only students are punished, refered, detained, suspended or expelled. . . .

We attempt to analyze the causes of the "discipline problem" from a system-blame rather than a person-blame perspective. Specifically, the battle for students' attention can be construed as a game--a contest between educators and students to focus students' attention in competing ways. Just as the rules and roles of football "cause" certain types of behavior to occur while prohibiting other types of behavior, so too the rules of attention-getting games in school "cause" people in different roles to behave in preditable ways.

In analyzing attention-getting games in school we identify the implicit or explicit rules, the payoffs or points, the nature of the scoring system, the obstacles to making points, and the focus of decision making. . . (p. 321).

The "mechanism" from which most problem solutions have been generated is the social literacy support group, a cadre of 4-30 teachers in a school who meet weekly to do collaborative problem solving. The solutions that emerge from the support groups are as varied as the problems posed, but most are related to the battle for students' attention. Numerous teachers have developed classroom rules collaboratively with students rather than dictating rules to students and then policing, judging, and executing sentences. Social Literacy support groups have developed solutions for problematic school policies and norms: e.g., consistent school rules, flexible scheduling, more controlled use of the P.A. system, reduction of referral rates to the disciplinarians, special workshops to deal with implementing new state laws that "mainstream" children with "special" needs. At present 16 teachers have used a "survey" feedback process in their classroom that (1) collects base rate data on attention time, student level of participation, students liking of the teacher, and more; (2) presents these data to the class as a potential problem to be solved; (3) collaboratively devises solutions to problems of mutual interest; and (4) collects follow-up data to see if the solutions are working. . . (p. 323).

. . . we began without any specific agenda or behavioral objectives other than the collaborative search for a central conflict. For the first two years of the project we had no financial support whatsoever. Daily and weekly results and the intrinsic satisfaction of collaboration were the payoffs that allowed us to survive. We began with no solutions. In fact we did not even pretend we knew what "the" problem was. We had no limit of time, no PERT charts, no accountability, and no formal review boards with power to withdraw sanction and support. . . (p. 325). (Quoted by permission of JAI Press.)

See also Alschuler (1980) and William Smith (1976).

13. Amarel, Marianne, Ernest House, Daniel Langmeyer, Dan Lortie, Rochelle Mayer, Leslie McLean, and Leonard Sealey. Reform, response, and renegotiation: Transitions in a school change project. New York: Ford Foundation, 1979. [S, Int, OrF, Env, OD]

[Our] conception of education and social change was that people would be freed up and would grow and develop if institutional and organizational obstacles were removed. Within the classroom this philosophy was manifested in an open approach to education. Within the school as a whole, it was manifested in organizational development that envisioned the reaction of self-governing mechanisms involving teachers and parents (p. iii).

Although we realize the perils of generalizing from a single case study, however elaborate, our observations generally agree with what others in similar circumstances have said. . . .

1. Powerful social forces, arising largely from class and other social differences, overwhelmed the innovation effort. . . .

2. Factions and interest groups heavily influence both the process and effect of innovation. . . .

3. The work structure of the school and profession constrained teacher behavior. . . .

4. The voluntaristic, psychological approach of the Team to changing the culture of the school was ineffective against the traditional work structure and impinging social forces. . . .

5. Only the line authority structure within the school district had the power to effect substantial change. . . .

6. The ultimate result was that more change occurred in the Team's ideas of how innovations are best introduced than in the school itself (pp. 25-26). (Copyright 1979, the Ford Foundation.)

14. Ames, Carole and Russell Ames. The thrill of victory and the agony of defeat: Children's self and interpersonal evaluations in competitive and noncompetitive learning environments. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1978, 12(1), 79-87. [S. Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Mot, Tea]

The research reviewed here clearly shows that children's reactions to success and failure experiences are to a great extent determined by the reward contingencies of the achievement setting. Further, the reward structure of the setting has different implications for children who differ in level of self-concept. In general, these studies have demonstrated that the negative consequences of failure are accentuated in certain reward structures, and contrary to what one might expect, success experiences do not necessarily facilitate self-concept development and positive social behavior.

From these findings, it is difficult to justify the use of competitive reward structures in classroom situations. The children who fail to win view themselves as incapable and engage in self-condemnation. Other researchers have consistently found that children who associate failure with a lack of ability show a deterioration of performance and inadequate problem solving skills when they encounter failure. . . . Winning in competitive settings, however, does not seem to enable children to make more realistic self-appraisals. Winning produces exaggerated views of one's ability and worth and a downgrading of the losing other, perhaps encouraging unrealistic expectancies for one's future performance as well as hindering interpersonal relationships (pp. 85-86).

. . .an educator can increase the probability that high self-concept children will continue to view themselves positively, view others positively, and be more satisfied with their performance by structuring the learning environment to emphasize success and cooperation. The impact of such a restructuring on low self-concept children, however, appears somewhat tenuous. Simply changing the environmental conditions is less likely to enhance the self-esteem of the low self-concept child. These children seem to need attribution training for interpreting achievement-related events and self-reinforcement training for associating positive feelings with successful experiences (p. 86).

15. Anderson, James D. and Dale G. Lake. From information to action: Information systems and the use of knowledge. Washington, DC: Alban Institute, 1974. [, Int, Orf, OD]

Describes the role of information in the process of institutional change. Although the site for study was an Episcopal diocese, the problem-solving principles presented are generalizable to other organizations, and the "energy states" described are steps for all problem-solvers to follow: (1) acceptance, (2) analysis, (3) definition, (4) ideation, (5) selecting, (6) implementation, and (7) evaluation.

16. Apple, Michael W., Michael J. Subkoviak, and Henry S. Lufler, Jr. (Eds.) *Educational evaluation: Analysis and responsibility*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1974. [S, Ev]

    This book is concerned mainly with (1) "broadening the perspectives of educators on the problems of and approaches to evaluation" and (2) "overcoming the limited range of conceptual and historical insights in the evaluation field."

    The first chapter by Apple . . . stress(es) that actions take place in social contexts that are value-laden. If we are to evaluate those actions and their products in a true sense, we must not only describe them, but also closely examine the values in which they are embedded. In chapter three, Michael Scriven discusses the relation between facts and values and the concept of a value-free science. After discussing the fact-value "dilemma," he takes a firm grip on the concept of a value-free science and demonstrates the inherent falseness of this concept. -- Ingemar Wedman, *Journal of Educational Measurement*, 1976, 13, 239-241.

17. Arends, Jane H. Organization development for the staff, parents, and students of an urban junior high school: A case study. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1975. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

    Describes a pilot consultation in organization development for an urban junior high school. The purpose of the consultation was to create organizational structures for involving staff, parents, and students in school-wide problem solving and decision making. Diagnosis of the current state of the school showed (1) absence of staff norms to support collaboration and expression of variety, (2) a history of failure at innovating, (3) tensions among staff members, (4) absence of functioning groups of parents, and (5) preference for safety and affiliation as opposed to staff-parent-student collaboration. The study reports the events of an intervention that attempted to help a staff institute innovation in spite of the diagnosed problems. Guidelines for future efforts with such schools are offered.

18. Arends, Jane H., Richard A. Schmuck, and Richard I. Arends. Students as organizational participants. In M.M. Milstein (Ed.), *Schools, conflict, and change*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1980; pp. 96-113. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

    The authors list many matters upon which they have found students wanting to have influence. Here are a few: who will lead discussions, what constitutes helping that is not cheating, to which students certain requirements or assignments should apply, about which matters students may express disagreement with the teacher, distributions of grades, the electives to be offered, counting out-of-school jobs for academic credit, arrangements for giving help to incoming students, going off campus during the school day, and the kinds of community events to be held in the building.

19. Arends, Richard I. and Jane H. Arends. *Systems change strategies for the helping professional*. New York: Human Sciences Press, 1976. ERIC order number ED 124 868. [S, Int, Orf]

This monograph concentrates on the processes of change in a specific social system, the school, and presents specific strategies for promoting system change. In the first chapter the authors describe why schools need to change and suggest the part those who provide guidance and pupil personnel services can play. The second chapter explains schools as social systems and describes some group processes through which work is accomplished in schools. Examples and tools appear in the third chapter, while the fourth chapter presents guidelines for facilitating change. The authors . . . conclude with an annotated bibliography . . . . (ERIC abstract)

20. Arends, Richard I. and Jane H. Arends. Processes of change in educational settings: An application to mainstreaming. In J.K. Grosenick and M.C. Reynolds (Eds.), *Teacher education: Renegotiating roles for mainstreaming*. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, 1978. [S, Int, OrF]

The problems faced in changing American education arise from the nature of schools as organizations, not from the lack of appropriate skills and attitudes in individual educational personnel. In this chapter, the concepts of change within educational organizations are presented. A "conceptual map" to guide the reader's understanding of the change process in educational settings is described. Using this framework, observations of the change process in two Deans' Grants Projects are presented. The chapter also includes some guidelines to assist persons charged with managing change projects. (authors' abstract)

21. Arends, Richard I. and Jane H. Phelps. Establishing organizational specialists within school districts. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1973. (mimeo) [S, Int, Lin, OD]

Describes in detail the establishment of two cadres of organizational specialists, their rationale, and the success of their work.

22. Arends, Richard., Richard A. Schmuck, Marc Milleman, Jane H. Arends, and Joseph Wiseman. *Understanding school life through organizational psychology*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association, 1977. [S, Cl, Ef, OD]

A curriculum module in which students use their school as an organization to study and to influence. Objectives are to help students understand the dynamics of the school as a form of social organization, understand their roles as potential organizational participants, and develop the skills to design and carry out a sustained program for school improvement.

23. Argyris, Chris. Personality and organization theory revisited. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 1973, 18(2), 141-167. [N, OrF, Mot]

Documents the delibilitating effects of low-status jobs in which the worker has little control over his or her own fate. Gives evidence that people in dull work also carry on dull leisure-time activities. Gives evidence that people become enthusiastic and creative when moved into jobs where they control more of their own fate, though a transition period for developing new attitudes and skills is necessary. Makes few references to schools.

A growing body of research testifies to the pervasiveness in social interaction of three kinds of motives or skill in acting upon them: power, achievement, and affiliation. Those are McClelland's labels; different authors use different labels. Sometimes a motive of activity, energy, or initiative appears. Several writings in this bibliography give evidence of the importance of one or more of those motives (or skills); see entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

24. Argyris, Chris. Theories of action that inhibit individual learning *American Psychologist*, 1976, 31(9), 638-654. [SN, OrF, Lea]

A theory of action perspective is applied to adult learning problems, including becoming a more effective leader. Results suggest that adults may not be able to discover-invent-produce the learning that is necessary to behave more effectively; thaty they may be unaware of this possibility; and that if they try to get help from well-intentioned others, it will tend to make things worse. The results are applied to the adult educational perspectives represented by Fiedler and Vroom and their respective collaborators. (author's abstract)

25. Argyris, Chris. *Reasoning, learning, and action: Individual and organizational*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1982. [N, Int, OrF, Tea, OD]

Despite increasingly sophisticated organization development and management techniques, organizational effectiveness is declining. This new book offers proven methods for changing the self-defeating attitudes and behavior that are common among all individuals and organizations and that prevent them from becoming more effective. The methods are based on the theory of reasoning and action introduced in Argyris's earlier book with Donald Schon. Now Argyris summarizes nearly a decade of work in testing, refining, and using his theory and methods in all types of organizational settings. Drawing from this work, Argyris presents numerous case examples, complete with actual dialogues and explanatory comments, that illustrate how to apply this approach with individuals and groups in office meetings, workshops, seminars, classrooms, and consulting sessions. He demonstrates mistakes organizational leaders make when dealing with complex, sensitive, or threatening issues; details techniques designed to foster constructive reasoning and actions; and outlines the process through which organizational leaders can learn to solve problems more effectively--and then apply these skills in their daily work. Argyris's insights and methods will be useful to executives and managers as well as to educators, training professionals, social and behavioral scientists, and all specialists in organization development. -- Publisher's blurb

26. Armstrong, Ronald. Student involvement. Analysis and Bibliography Series No. 14. Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 1972. [S, Bib]

Intended primarily for educational administrators, this review presents an analysis of the literature concerning student participation in educational decision making. The educational and legal ramifications of student involvement in several decision making spheres, such as school board and committee membership, student government, extracurricular activities, student publications, and curriculum issues, are discussed. Some suggestions are given to administrators for channeling student energies into a constructive improvement of the educational program. A 54-item bibliography of related literature is also included. (author's abstract)

27. Aronson, Elliot, Diane L. Bridgeman, and Robert Geffner. Interdependent interactions and prosocial behavior. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1978, 12(1), 16-27. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Mot]

The aim of the jigsaw technique is not to train young people to be so cooperative that they will be out of place in a highly competitive society. Rather, the aim is to teach cooperation as a skill so that the individual can call on that skill under appropriate conditions--when cooperation is the most facilitative way to perform a task--even in an environment that is largely competitive. And it is quite clear that some success has been achieved: children in the experimental classes can and do cooperate under appropriate conditions and, in the process of cooperation, they show improved self-esteem, morale, academic achievement, role-taking ability, and interpersonal relations. Moreover, children who have spent a year in a classroom where cooperation is the dominant mode of interaction apparently perform as well as they ever did--a year later, when they have moved on to a classroom in which competition predominates. They have not lost anything important. The authors' hope is that, as a result of their jigsaw experience, the children have lost something: their tendency to compete and to try to out-do the other person in situations where cooperation would be a more reasonable strategy. It is also hoped that children who have experienced the pleasures as well as the efficacious aspects of cooperation might even venture to attempt to cooperate in ambiguous situations. For most American children, reared as they are on a fairly steady diet of competitiveness, the strategy seems to be: when in doubt, go out there and beat the other person. Frankly, the ultimate goal is for children to begin to learn that cooperation is appropriate, functional, exciting and humanizing in many more situations than they might have realized (pp. 25-26).

28. Ascough, Larry. Reconnecting the school and the community: Mission possible. NASSP Bulletin, January, 1979, 58-65. [S, Lin]

Cooperative ventures with business, industry, and outside agencies can complement and supplement the school's efforts by providing resources . . . ; expertise and guidance from the real world; individuals to serve as role models . . . ; and internships and other real life experiences. In short, partnerships with the community can provide schools with things they couldn't buy even if they had the money (p. 59).

The Community Network for Public Education in Dallas is composed of groups working to improve the schools: business, realtors, religious, organizations, PTA, higher education, youth services, and district advisory committees. The Network reflects both special interests and common interests in public education.

29. Averch, H.A., S.J. Carroll, T.S. Donaldson, H.J. Kiesling, and J. Pincus. How effective is schooling: A critical review and synthesis of research findings. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corp., 1972. [S, Ef, Int]

This report assesses what [was] known [in 1972] about the determinants of educational effectiveness. The work was initially sponsored by the President's Commission on School Finance as part of its inquiry into alternative financial arrangements for primary and secondary education. -- from the Preface

The following conclusions are presented in the summary: (1) Virtually without exception, all of the large surveys of the large national compensatory education programs have shown no beneficial results on average. . . . (2) A number of intervention programs have been designed quite carefully and display gains in public cognitive performance, again in the short run. In particular, pupils from the more disadvantaged socioeconomic backgrounds tend to show greater progress in more highly structured programs [--] those in which the sequencing of the children's experiences is heavily organized externally. . . (p. 125).

30. Baker, Lynn E. Perspectives in interorganizational relationships. In D.L. Clark, S. McKibbin, and M. Malkas (Eds.), Alternative perspectives for viewing educational organizations. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1981; pp. 51-64. [S, OrF, Lin]

Educational agencies are faced with a growing number of mandates and incentives to coordinate and collaborate; to enter into interorganizational arrangements for sharing and exchanging resources. Public policy makers often assume that improved coordination among agencies is a direct route to more efficient and effective policy implementation. This is evidenced by the trend toward having federal and state funding be tied to (or biased in favor of) the formation and maintenance of collaborative arrangements among programs concerned with education, social welfare, rehabilitation, and corrections (p. 51).

Educators and educational policy makers have a major stake in stimulating research on interorganizational arrangements. These arrangements have been advocated so frequently in school improvement efforts, with little empirical or theoretical support, that a few recommendations seem in order:

1. The plethora of interorganizational agencies in education should be subjected to study, analysis, and evaluation.

2. Newer perspectives on organizations and organizing should be applied to the study of these agencies.

3. In the immediate future, logical analysis of the implications of these alternative perspectives for educational interorganizational arrangements should be undertaken (p. 62).

31. Baldridge, J. Victor. Rules for a Machiavellian change agent: Transforming the entrenched professional organization. In J. V. Baldridge and T.E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1975; pp. 378-388. [SN, Int, OrF]

Discusses professional organizations and the difficulties in bringing about change in them. Three characteristics of such organizations that make special strategies a necessity: (1) they are highly professionalized, client-serving systems, (2) they have extremely ambiguous goals, and (3) they are extremely vulnerable to outside pressures.

"The problem is clear: entrenched professionals are more interested in serving themselves than in serving their clients. The vision is compelling; the organization has to be changed so that the client's needs are in the forefront. The decision process is complex: an organized anarchy with the political decision process is an ugly monster to alter" (p 383).

Explains five rules of strategy: (1) concentrate your efforts, (2) know when to fight, (3) learn the history, (4) build a coalition, and (5) join external constituencies.

32. Baldridge, J. Victor and Robert A. Burnham. Organizational innovation: Individual, organizational, and environmental impacts. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1975, 20(2), 165-176. [S, Int]

This article argues that research on diffusion of innovation should shift from individuals to organizational structure and environmental factors. The results of two research projects on organizational change are presented. The analysis indicates three findings. (1) Individual characteristics, such as sex, age, and personal attitudes, do not seem to be important determinants of innovative behavior among people in complex organizations. However, administrative positions and roles do seem to have an impact on the involvement of an individual in the innovation process. (2) Structural characteristics of the organization, such as size and complexity, strongly affect the organization's innovative behavior. (3) Environmental input from the community and other organizations is a major determinant of an organization's innovation behavior. (author's abstract)

The studies were carried out in school districts around San Francisco Bay.

33. Bandura, Albert. Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. American Psychologist, 1982, 37(2), 122-147. [SN, Mot]

This article addresses the centrality of the self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. Self-percepts of efficacy influence thought patterns, actions, and emotional arousal. In causal tests the higher the level of induced self-efficacy, the higher the performance accomplishments and the lower the emotional arousal. Different lines of research are reviewed, showing that the self-efficacy mechanism may have wide explanatory power. Perceived self-efficacy helps to account for such diverse phenomena as changes in coping behavior produced by different modes of influence, level of physiological stress reactions, self-regulation of refractory behavior, resignation and despondency to failure experiences, self-debilitating effects of proxy control and illustory inefficaciousness, achievement strivings, growth of intrinsic interest, and career pursuits. The influential role of perceived collective efficacy in social change is analyzed, as are social conditions conducive to development of collective inefficacy. (author's abstract)

For other writings on power over fate (self-efficacy) and on motives in the workplace, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

34. Barker, Roger G. and Paul V. Gump. Big school, small school: High school size and student behavior. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 1964. [S, Orf]

In some ways, an organization like a school offers the same number of opportunities no matter how large it is; for example, there can be only one president of the senior class. In other ways, the larger organization offers more people with whom each person might interact. This book examines the effects of these complications on the ways the individual can fit into the life of the organization.

See also E.P. Willems. Sense of obligation to high school activities as related to school size and marginality of student. In D.A. Erickson (Ed.), Educational organization and administration. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1977; pp. 311-324.

35. Bartee, Edwin M. and Fred Cheyunski. A methodology for process-oriented organizational diagnosis. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1977, 13(1), 53-68. [N, Ev, Int]

A successful methodology for organizational diagnosis requires that an interventionist as a third party facilitator attend to many very specific process aspects. The traditional techniques used for organizational diagnosis, such as questionnaires, interviews, and participant observation, are criticized as being content influential. The process oriented methodology presented involves the interventionist with the client in designing groups that represent four different constituencies of a particular organizational unit. The initial diagnosis and the intial intervention is achieved by conducting a problem diagnosis workshop. (abstract from INFO data base)

36. Bassin, Marc, Thomas Gross, and Patricia Jordan. Developing renewal processes in urban high schools. Theory Into Practice, (published by the College of Education of The Ohio State University), 1979, 18(2), 73-81. An article with similar content is M. Bassin and T. Gross. Turning on big city schools: Pragmatic, participatory, problem solving. In M.M. Milstein (Ed.), Schools, conflict, and change. New York: Teachers College Press, 1980; pp. 114-131. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

This renewal program in New York City differs from all other OD projects in schools. First, it is the largest OD effort in inner city schools anywhere in the world; in 1979 there were 31 participating schools, all of them large. Second, it is the largest effort to apply OD to secondary schools. And third, it is the longest OD effort in inner city schools, having been in operation since 1969.

The "renewal model" is "participatory, systematic planning, and problem solving." It calls for members of the school--including the students--to identify, analyze, and develop solutions to school problems. The stages are start-up, diagnosis, planning, and implementation. We quote below four brief descriptions of work carried out within schools as a result of the Renewal project. Each "case example" is followed by a brief description of "benefits overall"--that is, benefits in the 31 high schools as a group.

School-wide Renewal . . . Case example. One renewal committee had been operating at a modest level of accomplishment for a year and a half and then put considerable effort into organizing a planning weekend involving fifteen staff and fifteen students. One dramatic result was a school-wide reading campaign with rewards, including status, for reading books, and coordinated effort at incorporating reading instruction in the content area subjects; hundreds of students were positively affected within the first few months.

Benefits overall. (a) Most schools demonstrated that a new structural vehicle for participative planning had been institutionalized. (b) All staffs reported the discovery of previous untapped talents within the school and its surrounding community. (c) Most staffs reported more open communication among all segments of the school-community.

Student Renewal . . . Case example. In a school where renewal had not been effective with a staff committee, a student renewal committee was organized as a class, as an attempt to intervene in another subsystem of the school. During the first semester of operation the class of twenty students, grades nine through twelve included, implemented a variety of projects including the following: an opinion survey of all students in the school, a designation of school spirit as the renewal priority, a "Respect Yourself" rally and assembly involving all students in the school, a student-faculty rap session focusing on communications and involving all the faculty, . . . and a monthly newsletter reporting on renewal news. In their Evaluation Report to the principal, the renewal students expressed pride in their accomplishments and appreciation in having learned "leadership skills which we can carry with us throughout life."

Benefits overall. (a) Students, in general, were highly interested in improving their schools. (b) In a few schools the success of students motivated a hitherto demoralized faculty. For example, in one school the students initiated a course evaluation project for which 80 percent of the faculty volunteered. (c) Students often worked faster than faculty since they experienced fewer time constraints.

Departmental Renewal . . . Case example. A former renewal coordinator had become the chairman of the English Department. . . . Involving all of the faculty in her department, the chairman was able to organize a project which developed new curricula standards and objectives for the first time in fifteen years. The outcome has been a far-reaching modernization of the entire English Department's curriculum so that it better fits the needs of the underachieving student, so common in their school.

Benefits overall. (a) Improvements were shown to occur in both the process and task aspects of department functioning in the majority of schools. (b) Some process improvements included: (1) improved leadership performance of chairman through feedback from staff, (2) improved departmental meetings, and (3) increased use of other departments as resources. (c) The improvements in task accomplishment focuses on the effective execution of curriculum change.

Administrative Team Renewal . . . Case example. . . . . the administrative team of this school designated three areas of work for improvement and then developed action plans for each: . . . revising security procedures to reduce class cutting and vandalism; streamlining meetings to increase the effectiveness of decision-making; and creating new supervisory procedures to provide increased support to teachers in the classroom. In their own evaluation of the first year, the team found significant progress made in each target area.

Benefits overall. (a) Speedy actions to improve school-wide processes were frequently facilitated by working with the top administration.

(b) The functioning of administrative teams was improved in their meetings, decision-making, planning, and implementation (pp. 78-79).

See also Gross (1980), Porterfield and Porterfield (1979), and Simmelkjaer (1979). See also March Bassin. Three major strategies for large school system change: The New York City high schools' experience. Paper presented to the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, 1982. Available from the author, General Foods Corporation, White Plains, New York, 10625.

37. Beckhard, Richard. Organization development: Strategies and models. Reading, MA: Addision-Wesley, 1969. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

Developing a strategy for systematic improvement of an organization entails an examination of the present state of affairs through diagnosis in two broad areas: (1) the various sub-systems that make up the total organization system, and (2) the organization processes that are occurring. The term "change manager" is used to refer to those who are responsible for the organization's operations and effectiveness and who must accept major management responsibility in any planned organization or unit-wide change effort. The term "change agent" is used to refer to those people, either inside or outside the organization, who are providing technical, specialist or consulting assistance in the management of a change effort. Alternative arrangements for linking organizations and outside resources and for the use of internal change agents are described. -- Maguire, Temkin and Cummings (1971)

38. Beckhard, Richard and Rueben T. Harris. Organizational transitions: Managing complex change. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1977. [N, Int, Orf]

. . . this book focuses on the special tasks managers must carry out to successfully bridge the period of time between the conception of a design for change and the final institutionalization of the change. This period of organizational and personal stress is often extremely expensive, both financially and psychologically. The first book I've seen that focuses on this specific issue, Organizational Transitions is a handy reference for consultants and managers. . . . Psychological, sociotechnical, and productivity issues are considered with refreshing clarity. Surprisingly detailed for so brief a volume, this book is an excellent buy, and I strongly recommend it to all managers and OD consultants. -- abstract by Anthony J. Reilly and Tim Boone in Group and Organization Studies, 1977, 2(4), 516.

39. Beer, Michael and Edgar F. Huse. A systems approach to organization development. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1972, 8(1), 79-101. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

Organization development (OD) efforts are often exclusively oriented to one method, one set of theoretical concepts, or one organizational variable. An input-process-output model of an organization was used as a framework for planned change. The program dealt with many organizational dimensions and used several intervention strategies and OD technologies. The effort resulted in substantial changes in organizational inputs, processes, and outputs. A number of findings about organization development have emerged from this OD experience and include the following: (1) OD efforts must not always start at the top; (2) the organization itself is the best laboratory for learning; (3) structural and interpersonal changes must complement and reinforce each other; (4) adult learning starts with behavioral change rather than cognitive change; and (5) the selection of change leaders as initial targets for the change program is a useful OD strategy.

40. Beer, Stafford. Death is equifinal: Eighth annual Ludwig von Bertalanffy memorial lecture. Behavioral Science, 1981, 26(3), 185-196. [N, Int, OrF, Env]

What has really happened is that in the attempt to manage complexity we have perforce adopted a low-variety regulatory model. [We] should recognize this limitation before all others--before bugetary constraints, before political constraints, before any kind of sober practicality--whereby responsible people put on solemn faces to assure us that there is no alternative to massive unemployment, to arms racing, to nuclear reactors, to prisons, or to whatever else it may be that their models dictate. The constraint that maybe we do not know in the least what we are talking about is the most practical of them all--and the most likely (p. 187).

The essence of maintaining the comfortable, privileged, self-indulgent, and barely effective specialisms by which mankind fails to achieve its minimal targets lies, quite paradoxically, in education. It is the mystical secret of our civilization to realize that once the poor devils have been educated, they will understand and accept why they are being starved and aborted, tortured and shot. The models explain it all; therefore the real problem is to make truth spectacles available to all at a reduced price. All includes the sufferers, first and foremost; and next it includes those who, with genuine libertarian zeal, are doing their utmost to administer the conclusions of the only models that they have got. "Educate them." It is the current panacea. (p. 187-188).

Everyone knows what the problem is. The metaproblem is: Why is the situation structured like this? Why is the problem expressed in this way? How has variety been constrained in these processes? Do our procedures, reflected through all these attenuators of variety, have anything to do with what we want to achieve. . . ?

As systems people we have to point out, as I am trying to do, that the ace which humankind has up its sleeve is the ability to question its own programming and to doubt its own models. Each of us--whereby I mean those systems people present, but also those managers and ministers whom we serve--has this God-given ability. We do not have to be Einstein or Picasso to be variety engineers, to devise new models, to understand the issues of variety attenuation. But we do, over and above everything else, need courage (p. 191).

41. Bell, Warren E. Impact of organization development interventions conducted by an internal cadre of specialists on the organizational processes in elementary schools. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1977. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

This study is part of a larger research project designed to examine the impact of an Internal Cadre of Organizational Specialists in Eugene, Oregon on the attitudes and beliefs of district personnel, the perceptions and expectations of Cadre members and the organizational processes of staff members in elementary schools. This study focused on the last, analyzing the effects of organizational complexity and organization development interventions conducted by the Cadre on the organizational processes in 32 elementary schools.

One overall conclusion was that organization development interventions have positive effects on organizational processes, especially if sufficient time is devoted to the intervention. Another was that OD training provided to principals has significant and positive impact on the organizational processes of elementary schools. The major recommendation of the study was that special efforts should be given to training principals as well as staffs in OD skills and procedures.

42. Bell, Warren E. Obstacles to urban school renewal. Theory Into Practice, 1979, 18(2), 64-72. [S, Int, OrF, Env]

The present conditions in urban schools combine and interact in a cyclic way to deplete the school's capacity to respond to problems.... The press from external conditions, demands, and regulations result in perceptions of helplessness, hopelessness, and depersonalization which combine to produce a pervasive sense of powerlessness. The sense of powerlessness, in turn, interacts with incongruent competence to create feelings of incompetence in teachers and administrators, a condition which leads to withdrawal from colleagues and more extreme isolation. This isolation reduces the frequency of collaborative efforts and collegial exchange resutling in greater energy drain on individual educators and lowering the cooperative energy available to the system. This energy drain decreases the likelihood that the system's resources can be brought to bear in dealing with external conditions or in acquiring needed competencies. And so the cycle continues and perpetuates itself in an ever-downward spiral creating a climate of recurrent frustration and failure in urban schools.

The task of the consultant then becomes one of breaking this vicious cycle, helping school people to experience initial successes and strengthening the school's capacity to respond to its problems in effective ways (p. 71).

43. Bell, Warren E. and Ann M. Burr. The Eugene cadre: An internal group of OD specialists -- their impact on a school district. Eugene, OR:

Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1976. (mimeo) [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

Describes the formation of a group of volunteer Organizational Specialists in a school district and the research conducted four years later to ascertain the group's impact on their colleagues.

A survey of the 2,022 district employees resulted in a representative sample of respondents who answered items about knowledge of the cadre as well as attitudes toward the group. Results showed a sizeable amount of knowledge about them and attitudes that were more favorable than unfavorable.

Recommendations to other such groups of consultants were: (1) be clear about your purposes and affilitations, (2) do not expect the clients to see immediate benefits to their job; the first benefits felt are personal, and (3) divorce yourselves from the labels of "sensitivity trainers."

44. Bell, Warren E. and Spencer H. Wyant. Diagnosing a school's readiness for change: What to look for when starting an improvement effort. (2nd ed.) Santa Cruz, CA: Consulting Exchange (P.O. Box 917, zip 95061), 1981. [S, Ev, Int, OD]

Chapter headings: Understanding your school organization, Conditions of readiness, Collecting and using information, Being a change agent, and Taking action--creating a climate for change. Includes worksheets. The chapter on conditions of readiness gives details on six conditions: The press for change, The support for change, The stability of the staff, Norms supporting collaborative group work, Skill in collaborative group work, and The spirit of risk-taking.

45. Benjamin, Lorna Smith. Structural analysis of social behavior. Psyhcological Review, 1974, 81(5), 392-425. [N, Mot]

A brief review of the literature on structural analysis of interpersonal behavior is followed by a proposal which draws heavily from prior models, especially those of Schaefer and of Leary. The proposed model goes beyond previous ones in that it has a highly explicit structure which defines behavioral opposites, complements, and antidotes. Built on two axes named affiliation and interdependence, the model describes dyadic social interactions in terms of complementary proportions of those underlying dimensions. Opposite behaviors appear at 180 [degrees,] whereas complementary behaviors appear at topologically similar positions on two separate planes. Antidotes are defined as opposites of complements. Using the questionnaire method, the proposed structure has been tested by the responses of normal as well as psychiatric subjects. Analysis of these data by the techniques of autocorrelation, circumplex analysis, and factor analysis supports the model. (author's abstract)

For writings on similar motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

46. Bennis, Warren G. and Philip E. Slater. The temporary society. New York: Harper and Row, 1968. [SN, OrF, Env]

Six separate essays by one or both of the authors "to force into view certain changes affecting vital aspects of our key institutions: organizational life, family life, interpersonal relationships, and authority." In the first essay, democracy is seen as inevitable--the necessary social system of the electronic era. In the second essay, Slater looks at change and the democratic family, noting that "experiential chasms between age cohorts serve to invalidate parental authority" (p. 24). The topics that follow concern the new style organizations between bureaucracy, social consequences of temporary systems, new patterns of leadership for adaptive organizations, and in the final chapter on the temporary society, the necessary education is prescribed for the art and science of being more fully human.

47. Bentzen, Mary M. and associates. Changing schools: The magic feather principle. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974. [S, Int, OrF]

For any educator who knows he doesn't know it all. . . . This is a suspense story in educational change and the study of it. . . the pull on the reader's mind comes, rather, from the way Mary Bentzen draws the reader into participation with a small group of researchers who are in pursuit of an understanding of the mystique of change in education. . . . The Bentzen book is the story of how it happened; and, fortunately . . . how and why turn up as synonyms. . . . There are other refreshing breezes in this research. . . . in not a single sentence of the report does the reader have to stop to ask himself, "Now what does she mean by that?" . . . it is written in straight plain talk . . . in utter honesty. -- National Elementary Principal

The report of a five-year study of school change, its primary research thrust was to reveal what school variables, expressed as individual and collective behaviors, appear to be related to readiness to change. -- Ann Lieberman and Gary A. Griffin in Teachers College Record, 1976, 77(3).

For other reports from IDEA, see Culver and Hoban (1973), Goodlad (1975, 1977), Seeman and Seeman (1976), Tye and Novotney (1975), and Williams, Wall, Martin, and Berchin (1974).

48. Berg, Gunnar and Erik Wallin. (trans. M. Naylor) The school in an organizational perspective. Uppsala, Sweden: Department of Education, University of Uppsala, 1981. [S, Ef, OrF, Env, Lea, Lin]

[We] stress that within the wider framework of shared control the concept of negotiation does have advantages. It indicates that interpretations of goals (and rules) are made from different points of view at different levels of the school system and likewise within particular levels; e.g., in a municipality or at a school. If the school's activities are planned within a framework of negotiation, the need for knowledge of the school and the limits on its activities is all the greater, as we pointed out above. While giving scope to teachers'--and headteachers' and deputies'--professionalism, shared control will also mark the bounds of this professionalism in the light of the limitations laid down by society (p. 55).

49. Berlew, David E. Leadership and organizational excitement. In David A. Kolb, Irwin M. Rubin, and James M. McIntyre (Eds.), Organizational psychology: A book of readings (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1974; pp. 265-277. Also in California Management Review, 1974, and in B.M. Staw and G.R. Salancik (Eds.), New directions in organizational behavior. New York: Wiley, 1977; pp. 329-342. [N, Lea, OD]

Describes custodial, managerial, and charismatic modes of leadership. Custodial and managerial modes have not anticipated a time "when people would not be fulfilled even when they were treated with respect, were productive, and derived achievement satisfaction from their jobs. . . . they do not tell us why some organizations are excited or 'turned on' and others are not" (p. 266). Proposes making others feel stronger through new beliefs about human nature, high expectations, rewards instead of punishment, encouraging collaboration, helping only when asked, and creating success experiences.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for further annotation.

For other writings on the satisfaction of motives in the work place, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

50. Berlew, David E. and Roger Harrison. Trainer manual: Positive power and influence program. Boston: Situation Management Systems, 1979.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for annotation.

51. Berlew, David E. and William E. LeClere. Social intervention in Curacao: A case study. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1974, 10(1), 29-52. [N, Int, Mot]

This article describes an effort to apply behavioral science technologies to facilitate the social and economic development of the Caribbean island of Curacao, Netherlands Antilles. A period of rising tensions, culminating in a labor dispute which erupted into a night of rioting, burning, and looting, preceded the intervention.

The project had two major elements: (1) motivation training, designed to encourage residents to view themselves as "origins" rather than "pawns" and enable them to set life and career goals and plan effectively to achieve them; and (2) and "outlet program," which involved the island's leaders in creating new educational and job opportunities for individuals whose aspiration levels were raised by the motivation training. The intervention is evaluated, and several problems and issues relevant beyond the Curacao case are discussed. (author's abstract)

For other writings on achievement motivation, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or simiar motives)" at the end of the index.

52. Berman, Paul and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin. *Federal programs supporting educational change, Vol. IV: The findings in review.* Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corp., R-1589/4-HEW, 1975. [S, Int, OrF, Lin]

If educational change is to be successful and if an innovation is to attain stability, hard work in the local setting is required. Local people must participate in the planning and monitoring. Mutual adaptation is required between the consultants and the local school. Previously existing materials must be adapted to the local setting. In-service training must usually be provided. An explicit phase of institutionalization is required.

53. Berman, Paul and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin. Factors affecting the process of change. In M.M. Milstein (Ed.), *Schools, conflict, and change*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1980; pp. 57-71. [S, Int, Lin]

The following elements, when well executed, had major, positive effects on project outcomes and continuation.

Concrete, teacher-specific, and ongoing training. . . .
Classroom assistance from project or district staff. . . .
Observation of the projects in other classrooms or districts. . . .
Regular project meetings. . . .
Teacher participation in project decisions. . . .
Local materials development. . . .
Principal's participation in training. . . (pp. 64-66).

54. Bidwell, Charles E. Nations, school districts, and schools: Are there schooling effects anywhere? *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 1975, 9, 57-69. [S, Ef]

A critical review of studies.

55. Bidwell, Charles E. and John D. Kasarda. School district organization and student achievement. *American Sociological Review*, 1975, 40, 55-70. Reprinted in D.A. Erickson (Ed.), *Educational organization and administration*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1977; pp. 170-194. [S, Ef]

Determinants of organizational effectiveness and the achievement of high-school students were studied in 104 districts in Colorado. Higher pupil-teacher ratios and higher rations of administrators of teachers went with lower student achievement. Higher academic qualifications of teachers went with higher achievement. Higher percentages of non-white residents in the district went with lower achievement.

56. Bigelow, Ronald C. Changing classroom interaction through organization development. In R.A. Schmuck and M.B. Miles (Eds.), *Organization deve-*

lopment in schools. Palo Alto, CA: National Press Books (now Mayfield Publishing), 1971; pp. 71-85. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, OD]

The study probed ways in which changes in the norms governing communicative interaction among faculty changes in the communicative interaction between teacher and student.

The data taken from tape-recordings of classroom sessions are compelling. Teachers involved in the organizational development project changed their verbal behavior in their classrooms. While the control group teachers increased their use of directions and criticism, the OD group teachers decreased their use of directions and criticism. The OD group teachers also increased their use of praise and encouragement, student ideas, and questions. Changes in the number of students' responses indicated a greater student involvement in the interaction process in the OD classrooms. Students in the control school were resonding to an increased number of teacher questions, as were the students in the OD group. However, students in the latter group also were self-initiating more comments, indicating greater freedom to participate in a less prescribed manner. Students' attraction to school has been shown to decline as the school year progresses.*

---

*See, for example, Gage, Runkel, and Chatterjee (1963) in this bibliography and N.A. Flanders, B.A. Morrison, and B.E. Leland. Changes in pupil attitudes during the school year. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1968, 59, 334-338.

57. Bishop, Leslee J. Staff development and instructional improvement: Plans and procedures. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1976. [S, Cl, Int]

[This book] offers a practical guide to action. In the form of a generalized text, it presents a comprehensive array of suggestions for planning, designing, implementing, and managing inservice training programs with all of their resultant complexities.

Bishop's six core and interrelated topics are: (1) the rationale for change and renewal programs; (2) the diagnosis of staff and system needs accompanied by the identification of objectives for change; (3) the design of staff development programs; (4) the development of specific elements within the design; (5) implementation of the intervention, and (6) the evaluation of the effort throughout its existence. -- R.A. Schmuck in Review of Education, 1977, 3(3), 216-225.

58. Blake, Robert R. and Jane S. Mouton. Management by grid principles or situationalism: Which? Group and Organization Studies, 1981, 6(4), 439-445. [N, OrF, Lea]

Leadership theory has been conceived in two different and incompatible ways. Hersey and Blanchard's analysis entails arithmetic combinations of the task and people variables, whereas Blake and Mouton's approach involves interaction of the two. Examined in this way, Hersey and

Blanchard's model eliminates a "9,9" or "one-best-way" orientation. When 9,9 options were added to this model, managers and mental health experts uniformly chose the 9,9 alternative and rejected situationally prescribed answers. This generalization held for all maturity levels. This fundamental difference in how leadership is conceived is then used to reinterpret major leadership research since World War II. Instruments based on adding magnitudes of variables, such as Fleishman, Reddin, and Hersey and Blanchard, among others, have shown no validity from an empirical standpoint, whereas instruments based on an interaction of variables--such as those by Likert, Argyris, and Blake and Mouton--have consistently demonstrated predictive validity. This paper provides a resolution for the controversy between situationalism and the one-best-style approach and indicates the validity of the latter and the lack of predictive value of the former. (author's abstract) (Reprinted fromm R.R. Blake and J.S. Mouton. Management by grid principles or situationalism: Which? *Group and Organization Studies*, vol. 6, no. 4, pp. 439-445, copyright 1981 by University Associates, with permission of Sage Publications, Inc.)

For a similar article, see R.R. Blake and J.S. Mouton. A comparative analysis of situationalism and 9,9 management by principle. *Organizational Dynamics*, 1982, 10(4), 20-43.

59. Blake, Robert R., Jane Srygley Mouton, and Martha Shipe Williams. *The academic administrator grid: A guide to developing effective management teams*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981. [S, Lea, Tea, OD]

In our view, a basic difficulty underlying many of the serious problems of academic administration is the inability to deal effectively with conflict among administrators, between administrators and faculty members, among the faculty, between faculty and students, and between representatives of the institution and the external constituencies with whom they must deal. . . .

[The book] is aimed at leaders in universities, colleges, and community colleges--at presidents, vice-presidents, deans, institute heads, department chairs, researchers, and those faculty members who exercise significant committee responsibility. It examines effective and ineffective conflict resolution from many different perspectives. It contains dozens of examples from university life that provide an x-ray view of the range and character of current approaches to academic administration. . . .

We deal with the behavioral science principles of effective human interaction: relationships based on trust and respect, confronting conflict to establish collaborative problem solving, encouraging open and candid communication, using critiques as the basis of personal learning, and promoting shared participation that leads to decisions based on understanding and agreement. These issues are dealt with in the context of such operational problems as implementing institutional mission, supporting teaching and learning, estabishing the curriculum, supporting research and scholarly activity, encouraging community and institutional service, managing resources, supervising personnel, coordinating student affairs, managing external relations, and assuring basic operations (pp. x-xi).

60. Block, James H. Schools, society, and mastery learning. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1974. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Env, Mot]

The second part of the book focuses on the economic, sociological, and administrative implications of successful implementation. Henry Levin points out that "any attempt to describe the economic implications of mastery learning is necessarily audacious" because there is no relevant data-base. But his essay describes nicely how the economist would go about evaluating mastery learning, both in terms of its cost-effectiveness and its benefit to society. Levin makes some provocative comments on the nature of extra-educational changes (e.g., in work organization) that would correspond to the mastery-learning model and that might make mastery learning more functional in our society. William Spady discusses the ways in which the implementation of mastery learning might change the school's social milieu; the roles of the teacher, administrator, and student; and the community in general. -- Joanna Williams in Contemporary Psychology, 1975, 20(12), p. 964.

61. Bogen, I. Pupil-teacher rapport and the teacher's awareness of structures within the group. Journal of Educational Sociology, 1954, 28, 104-114. [S, Cl]

An experimental study in classrooms of the benefits to the teacher of treating students as embedded in a social order instead of as isolated individuals.

62. Bogue, E.G. The context of organizational behavior: A conceptual synthesis for the educational administrator. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1969, 5, 58-75 [S, OrF, Lea]

Individual behavior in organizations is viewed in four perspectives: management philosophy, organizational structure, group membership, and individual personality. The author feels that contemporary hierarchical organizational pattern stand to impede the following: (1) the achievement of individual self-actualization, (2) the occurrence of change and innovation, (3) the effective use of specialists in decision making, and (4) the development of an organic view of the organization. -- Maguire, Temkin and Cummings (1971).

63. Boles, Harold W. An administrative team? Journal of Educational Administration, 1975, 13(2), 73-80. [S, OrF, Tea]

In this report on the management team in one Michigan school district, Boles . . . reveals that the . . . term "administrative team" was being "applied to periodic meetings of individuals who were in no sense a team." While the team included principals and assistant principals, teacher requests for participation on the team were never acted on. Meetings were not convened along carefully prepared agendas, and items of interest to only a few members were often discussed in the presence of the entire committee. The word "policy" was often used to refer to things that were clearly not policy. The consideration of goals, philosophy, and curriculum was almost totally omitted. . . .

He discovered that there was no consistency in the expectations members of the team held for each other. In only one case was the individual's self-evaluation the same as the other members' evaluations of him. . . .

Members of this team were not receiving the necessary feedback concerning their performance, and they were unsure what behaviors to expect from others on the team. Boles recommends the use of his questionnaire to gauge performance expectations and to provide feedback. (Abstracted by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, in "The Best of ERIC," 1977, No. 28).

64. Booth, Charlene Warren. Open wide the schoolhouse doors. Austin, TX: Hogg Foundations for Mental Health, 1974. [S, Env, Lin]

Describes, in a popular style, a project for school-community integration that began in "the mid-1960s" in the Columbia-Brazoria School District. The project began with an effort by the Child Development Division of the University of Texas Medical Branch at Galveston to improve its training of medical workers and to reach a wider clientele. The author describes the functions of various aides and describes the history of planning groups and project groups. Contains a brief but interesting section on activities of student groups. Discussion of evaluation is next to nil, and no statistics are given on outcomes. The fact of long-continued organized activity in all sectors of the community, however, argues that some benefit was felt.

65. Borich, Gard D. (Ed.) Evaluating educational programs and products. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications, 1974. [S, Ev]

This book is largely by and for people working on problems of program evaluation at educational R&D institutions. Insofar as various chapters actually deal with the specifics of what goes on at R&D institutions in the name of evaluation and what has been learned from this work, the book makes an important contribution. . . . Since there are chapters that would be of interest to others besides evaluators (for example, school administrators, curriculum specialists, research methodologists, and even people generally interested in education), a reader's guide is included to suggest chapters for particular audiences. There is indeed something here for each of these audiences. . . . -- William A. Cooley in American Educational Research Journal, 1976, 13, 67-69.

66. Boss, R. Wayne. It doesn't matter if you win or lose, unless you're losing: Organizational change in a law enforcement agency. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1979, 15(2), 198-220. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

This study reports the results of a 4-year organization development project in the Metro County Sheriff's Department. Interventions included confrontation team-building sessions, management training, process consultation, survey feedback, third-party consultation, technological interventions, methods of increasing accountability, and changes in the organization structure, the physical setting, and the policy formulation procedures. Results include considerable improvement in organization climate and leader effectiveness, a marked decrease in employee turnover and jail breaks, a significant improvement in the managerial ability of the Department administrators, and a substantial increase in resources allocated to the organization. (author's abstract)

67. Boulding, Kenneth E. General systems theory--the skeleton of science. Management Science, 1956, 2(3), 197-208. Reprinted in W. Buckley (Ed.), Modern systems theory for the behavioral scientist: A sourcebook. Chicago: Aldine, 1968; pp. 3-10. [N, OrF, Env]

This new discipline represents an important breakaway from overly simple mechanical models in the theory of organization and control (p. 207).

Distinguishes systems according to their complexity. Shows how living systems, and especially human organizations, have complexities not present in physical systems. Shows that the "open system" when it is a human organization, contains complexities not often mentioned by writers on systems.

68. Boulding, Kenneth. Ecodynamics. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1978. [N, Int, OrF, Env, Mot]

Titles of some chapters: Population dynamics, Ecological dynamics, Biological evolution, Societal evolution, The threat system, Exchange as a social organizer, The integrative system, Power in society, Alternative images of the future.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for more annotation.

For other writings on motives, see the entries for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

69. Bowers, D.G. OD techniques and theory results in 23 organizations: The Michigan ICL study. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1973, 9(1), 21-43. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

Bowers . . . compared empirically the impacts over time of four interventions--interpersonal process consultation, task process consultation, laboratory training (group development), and survey feedback--and two control conditions--data handback and no treatment--on a host of attitudinal variables. Survey feedback, interpersonal process consultation, and data handback led to positive changes on a majority of the dependent measures, while task process consultation led to no change, and laboratory training and no treatment led to negative changes. Further analysis indicated that changes in perceived organizational climate (human resources primacy, communication flow, motivational climate, decision-making practices, technological readiness and lower-level influence) influenced the impacts of the interventions; without positive climate changes no interventions had very positive effects, and with them even laboratory training helped. The only intervention that directly improved organizational climate, however, was survey feedback. -- Friedlander and Brown (1974, p. 331).

For criticisms of Bowers's conclusions, see Pasmore (1976), page 139 of Golembiewski, Billingsley, and Yeager (1976), and W. Torbert. Some questions on Bowers's study of different OD techniques. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1973, 9, 668-671.

70. Bowles, Samuel and Herbert Gintis. Schooling in capitalist America. New York: Basic Books, 1976. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Env, Mot]

In Schooling in Capitalist America we began by asking what might be expected of an adequate educational system. We found that three goals were central to the traditional liberal conception of the social role of schooling. First, education should be egalitarian in the sense of acting as an effective force for overcoming the natural, social and historical inequities that tend inexorably to arise in society. Second, education should be developmental in the sense of providing students with the means to develop the cognitive, physical, emotional, critical, and aesthetic powers they possess as individuals and as human beings. Third, education should be a means of what John Dewey has called the 'social continuity of life'. That is, education should promote the smooth integration of individuals as fully functioning members of society.

We then endeavored to show using a variety of descriptive, historical, and statistical sources, that education in advanced capitalism actually reproduced social inequality rather than attenuating it, and acted rather more as a force for repressing personal development than fostering it. By contrast, what the schools seemed to do best was precisely to produce the 'good citizen' and the 'good worker'--its integrative function. Why does the project of progressive education in the liberal tradition exhibit this pattern of success and failure? Is the answer to be found in the educational system itself, or the articulation of the school system with the social structures within which the schools are located? We concluded the latter . . . .

We also argued specifically that the current relationship between education and capitalist production is ensured not primarily through the content of education but through its form: the social relations of the educational encounter. To the extent that education prepares students to be 'good workers', it does so through a correspondence between the social relations of production and the social relations of education. Like the division of labor in the capitalist enterprise, the educational system is a finely graded hierarchy of authority and control in which competition rather than cooperation governs the relations among participants, and an external reward system--wages in the case of the economy, and grades in the case of schools--holds sway.

This correspondence principle explains why the schools cannot at the same time promote full personal development and social equality, while integrating students into society. The hierarchical order of the school system, often admirably geared towards preparing students for their future positions in the hierarchy of production, limits the development of those personal capacities involving the exercise of reciprocal and mutual democratic participation and reinforces social inequality by legitimating the assignment of students to inherently unequal 'slots' in the social hierarchy. -- from pp. 224-226 of Bowles and Gintis (1981).

71. Bowles, Samuel and Herbert Gintis. Education as a site of contradictions in the reproduction of the capital-labor relationship: Second thoughts on the "correspondence principle." Economic and Industrial Democracy, 1981, 2(2), 223-242. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Env. Mot]

This paper deals with the treatment of the contradictory articulation of the educational system and the economic system in the liberal democratic capitalist social formation. It serves as an emmendation to our book Schooling in Capitalist America. (authors' abstract)

We have stressed in Schooling in Capitalist America that the transformation of the schools cannot be secured for long without parallel developments at the site of capitalist production. Demands for the democratization of the social relations of education therefore are likely to be effective only in the context of workers' demands for the democratization of the production process--in short, for the full development of workers' control. The first step in the democratization of education is a similar move toward teachers' and parents' control of the educational process. For teachers, as workers, will surely be involved in the movement for the democratization of economic life; and parents, as community members, will similarly be involved in the extension of the powers of local community decision-making.

Beyond this, the philosophy of education must develop in the direction that personal development through schooling be geared toward rendering students capable of controlling their lives as citizens, family members, workers, and community members. In particular, the educational process must be structured so that students gradually come to control increasingly substantial spheres of their education as they move from early to later levels of schooling.

Current theories of progressive education stress that students be given free rein to develop their individual personalities, to be self-motivated and self-actualizing. While much of the substance of such educational reforms must be conserved, they can be criticized in general for their failure to recognize the inherently social character of educational formation. As we emphasized in our book, there is no 'true self' to emerge prior to the concrete social interactions that individuals experience. This is not to say that individuals are infinitely malleable, or that they should be subjected to a rapidly conformist schooling. Rather, it is to say that the ineluctibly social impact of education cannot be ignored (pp. 240-241).

72. Boyd, William Lowe and Robert L. Crowson. The changing conception and practice of public school administration. In D.C. Berliner (Ed.), Review of research in education. (Vol. 9) Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association, 1981; pp. 311-373. Copyright 1981, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [S, Ef, OrF, Env, Lea]

The pressures placed on the schools in behalf of equality, efficiency, and effectiveness, and the performance problems these pressures brought to light, have led to far-reaching change: a virtual revolution in authority relations; a sense of crisis about the normative order of schools; a serious decline in public confidence and support; and substantial changes in school governance (p. 356).

Conceptual developments related to the problem of goal-attainment have focused heavily on nonrational models that appear to provide better explanations than traditional rational models for the performance difficulties of public schools. Yet another explanation is offered by an economic or public choice analysis. By calling attention to the perverse structure of incentives in public schools, such an analysis offers a rational explanation for much that otherwise appears irrational: Goal displacement is to be expected when the reward structure is not oriented toward student learning or consumer satisfaction.

Conceptual developments related to the problem of integration have centered mainly on two lines of inquiry: social control problems arising from a lack of choice in student participation and admission to public schools, and ways of accounting for the degree of integration that exists within schools as loosely coupled organizations. Developments related to the problem of adaptation have tended to highlight the maladaptive tendencies of public schools as "domesticated," professionalized organizations. Conceptual developments related to pattern maintenance have revolved around challenges to the legitimacy of the public schools arising from the resurgence of cultural pluralism and the growth of neoconservative opinion. In the reaction against the heavy emphasis in educational policy on equality, advocates of liberty or choice have propounded their theories to an increasingly receptive public.

Turning to the changing world of practice, at the managerial level, research on what school administrators actually do has shown that they spend nearly all of their time on organizational maintenance and pupil control activities despite rhetoric about the importance of instructional leadership. Ironically, despite this allocation of time, the integration of school systems appears quite tenuous (p. 357).

Partly or largely because of how principals spend their time, the effects of administrators' activities on student outcomes appear quite indirect and insubstantial. Still, there is evidence that such administratively influenced factors as school "climate" may be important for school effectiveness. Furthermore, there are other factors, such as the allocation of teacher instructional time, that administrator can substantially control that may produce direct effects on student learning. Finally, school administrators are in a position to direct, or at least influence, what instructional systems are in use in schools. Thus, through advocacy for promising systems such as mastery learning, administrators may be able to make an important difference.

Attempts at the institutional level to open up the school governance process to greater parental choice, citizen participation and influence seem generally to have been ineffective (p. 358).

73. Boyer, Ronald K. and Campbell Crockett (Eds.) Organizational development in higher education. (Special issue) Journal of Higher Education, 1973, 44(5). [S, Int, OrF, Lea, OD]

We have pulled together a reasonably representative sample of cases to illustrate what has been done thus far. The papers in this issue, while not exhaustive, do cover much of the range of current practice. The primary clients to which this issue is addressed are the provosts, deans, department heads, and other managers of higher education who, we feel, have a direct stake in enhancing the viability of our institutions. -- from the editors' introduction.

74. Bradford, Leland P. (Ed.). Group development. (2nd ed., enlarged) San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1978. [SN, OrF, Bib]

Contains several classic and seminal articles on group dynamics; also has a bibliography on small-group development.

75. Bramel, Dana and Ronald Friend. Hawthorne, the myth of the docile worker, and class bias in psychology. American Psychologist, 1981, 36(8), 867-878. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

The famous studies done at the Hawthorne plant of Western Electric were fundamental for the development of human relations in industry. They have also been cited frequently in social psychology and research methodology. Despite the appearance over the years of a number of well-argued critiques, many psychologists continue to show an undeserved respect for the conclusions associated with the classic research. The errors of interpretation seem to reflect an uncritical acceptance of the views propagated by Mayo and Roethlisberger to the effect that workers are irrational, confused, and easily manipulated by intelligent managers, and that the capitalist firm is natural, nonexploitative, and potentially conflict free. Evidence from the studies themselves contradicts these view, calling into question stereotypes still current in textbooks. (authors' abstract)

76. Brass, Daniel J. Structural relationships, job characteristics, and worker satisfaction and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 1981, 26(3), 331-348. [N, OrF, Mot]

This reseach investigates the role of job characteristics as possible mediating variables in the relationships between the organization's structural context and the attitudes and behaviors of individual employees. The organization is conceptualized as a network of task positions interrelated on the basis of workflow transactions. Three structural relationships of task positions are investigated: (1) the centrality of a task position; (2) the degree to which a task position is critical to the workflow; and (3) the transaction alternatives available to a task position. The results indicate significant relationships between these three relational measures and job characteristics. Further, the findings support the hypothesis that job characteristics mediate the relationship between structure and individual responses. (authors' abstract)

77. Bredo, Eric. Collaborative relationships on teaching teams: Implications for collegial influence, team morale, and instructional practices. *Technical Report No. 45*. Stanford, CA: Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1975. [S, OrF, Tea]

Forty-six teams in both open space and self-contained settings were studied. "Overall, it appears that teaching teams are mostly small, equal-status groups with relatively unimportant or non-biding interdependencies--a likely outcome of the uncertain and highly contingent nature of the teaching task, which makes coordination difficult and agreement on procedures hard to obtain. . . . autonomy, flexibility, and voluntarism are likely to produce the most successful collaborative relationships" (p. iv).

78. Bresnick, David. Cyclical renewal in a large city school district--decentralization and the policy process. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 1974, 10(2), 19-34. [S, OrF, Env]

While decentralization of a large city school system allows for the maximization of certain values, it results in the deemphasis of other organizational values. This article places the decentralization of the largest city school system in the country into an historical conceptual framework. It argues that recent efforts at decentralization and community control are part of a recurrent pattern of reorganization. Noneducational support services, the administration of specialized schools, the allocation of internal resources, political mobilization to maintain and expand external support and educational leadership to stimulate organization innovation are all functions which depend upon effective central administration. The success of the decentralized school system depends in large measure upon the effective execution of these centralized functions. Particular emphasis is given to the political mobilization and innovation functions. (authors' abstract)

79. Brickman, Philip, Vita Carulli Rabinowitz, Jurgis Karuza, Jr., Dan Coates, Ellen Cohn and Louise Kidder. Models of helping and coping. *American Psychologist*, 1982, 37(4), 368-384. [SN, Int, OrF, Mot]

By drawing a distinction between attribution of responsibility for a problem (who is to blame for a past event) and attribution of responsibility for a solution (who is to control future events), we derive four general models that specify what form people's behavior will take when they try either to help others or to help themselves. In the first (called the moral model because of past usage of this term), actors are held responsible for both problems and solutions and are believed to need only proper motivation. In the compensatory model, people are seen as not responsible for problems but responsible for solutions, and are believed to need power. In the medical model, individuals are seen as responsible for neither problems nor solutions and are believed to need treatment. In the enlightenment model, actors are seen as responsible for problems but as unable or unwilling to provide solutions, and are believed to need discipline. It is our general hypothesis that each set of assumptions has characteristic consequences for the competence, status, and well-being of actors, and that the wrong choice of model in a situation will undermine effective helping and coping. Competing models of responsibility in education, psychotherapy, law, and welfare are described, and research on attribution of responsibility is recommended as a way of addressing problems of both theoretical and social significance. (authors' abstract)

80. Bridge, R. Gary. Parent participation in school innovation. Teachers College Record, 1976, 77(3), 366-384. Reprinted in D. Mann (Ed.), Making change happen? New York: Teachers College Press, 1978; pp. 101-119. [S, Env]

Schools which try to implement major changes without considering parents' views are very likely to get a quick lesson in the organization of American education (p. 367).

This paper, which examines the role parents play in the implementation of change at the school building or district level, will consider three issues: (1) What kinds of schooling decisions do normative models suggest parents should make? (2) What kinds of schooling decisions do parents want to make? and (3) Who seems to be competent to participate effectively? In conclusion, some guidelines are offered for the school administrator who wishes to foster parents' constructive rather than destructive participation (p. 368).

For more annotation, see Mann (1978).

81. Bridges, Edwin M. and Maureen T. Hallinan. Subunit size, work system interdependence, and employee absenteeism. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1978, 14(2), 24-42. [S, OrF]

Does the organizational structure of a school influence teacher absenteeism? More specifically, do the degree of interdependence among teachers and the number of teachers in the school affect the rate of absenteeism?

To find out, Bridges and Hallinan studied fifty-seven elementary schools from stratified random samples of schools in Wisconsin and the

San Francisco Bay Area. Using questionnaires and school district records, they gathered data on teacher absence behavior, school size, "work system interdependence," and personal characteristics of the staff. Using two previously developed instruments, the researchers also collected data on teachers' perceptions of "group cohesion" and "communication" within the school.

In accordance with research in business, the authors found significant relationships between both school size and work system interdependence and the rate of teacher absenteeism. The larger the school, the greater was the absenteeism rate. And the lower the level of interdependence among teachers, the more absenteeism was evidenced. (Abstracted by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, in "The Best of ERIC," 1982, No. 63, on teachers' absenteeism.)

See also E.M. Bridges, W.J. Doyle, and D.J. Mahan. Effects of hierarchical differentiation on group productivity, efficiency, and risk taking. In D.A. Erickson (Ed.), Educational organization and administration. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1977; pp. 542-554.

82. Brookover, Wilbur B., John H. Schwietzer, Jeffrey M. Schneider, Charles H. Beady, Patricia K. Flood, and Joseph M. Wisenbaker. Elementary school social climate and school achievement. American Educational Research Journal, 1978, 15(2), 301-318. [S, Cl, Ef, Mot]

The present study investigates the relationships among a variety of school-level climate variables and mean school achievement in a random sample of Michigan elementary schools. School-level SES, racial composition, and climate were each highly related to mean school achievement; only a small proportion of the between-school variance in achievement is explained by SES and racial composition after the effect of school climate is removed. The climate variable we have called Student Sense of Academic Futility had the largest correlation with achievement. An observational study of four schools with similar SES and racial composition but different achievement tended to support the more analytical findings and suggest the process by which climate affects achievement. (authors' abstract)

For other writings on control of own destiny (the obverse of sense of academic futilty) and other motive satisfaction, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

83. Broskowski, Anthony. Concepts of teacher-centered consultation. School Psychology Digest, 1978, 7(3), 38-45. [S, Int, OrF]

This article presents models of the school as an organization, and of consultation suited to such an organization. A program of consultation to an inner-city junior high school faculty based on the two models is described and evaluated. (authors' abstract)

84. Brubaker, Dale L. and Roland H. Nelson, Jr. Creative survival in educational bureaucracies. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1974. [S, OrF]

"You can't beat the establishment." "I'm tired of fighting the bureaucracy." "This is the last chance we have to change the establishment." Just such often-stated generalizations are examined and challenged in this important book. The authors believe that to survive creatively in and change educational organizations, the decision-maker needs to understand how such organizations presently function.

Clearly and simply written, allowing its sound ideas to stand out, the book helps the reader better understand the realities of educational organizations. . . . Throughout the book there are activities designed to involve the reader in the decision-making process. -- Publisher's blurb

85. Buckley, Walter. Sociology and modern systems theory. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1967. [N, OrF, Env]

Argues that mechanical equilibrium and organismic models of society should be replaced by general systems theory, cybernetics, and information and communication theory. Sees sociocultural system as a complex, adaptive system that generates, elaborates, and restructures patterns of meanings, actions, and interactions. Treats conflict, deviance, collective behavior, coercive power, and social change.

86. Bunda, Mary Anne (Ed.) Evaluation bibliography. (Aid No. 1 in Instructional Aids Series) Kalamazoo, MI: College of Education, Western Michigan University, 1976. [S, Ev, Bib]

Contains 603 entries indexed under categories such as "current issues in education," "Delphi technique," and "innovation technique."

87. Burke, W. Warner. Organization development and bureaucracy in the 1980s. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1980, 16(3), 423-437. [N, Int, OD]

Even though organization development may (a) represent nothing more than a convenient rubric for a conglomeration of activities, (b) suffer from problems of diffusion of success, (c) now be confused with or merely serve as another name for quality of working life, (d) be considered a taboo term in certain organizations (better to say "human resource development"), (e) disappear by being absorbed into other organizational functions such as "human resource management," (f) never have a comprehensive theoretical base, the field is alive and well. The OD Network numbers more than 2,000 members, the OD Division of the American Society for Training Development has even more, and the OD Division of the Academy of Management has approximately 1,000 members. [It] is reasonable if not conservative to assume that the number of people in the United States who call themselves OD practitioners or OD consultants is near 5,000 (p. 423).

We should . . . keep in perspective the fact that bureaucracies have been around for quite some time--much longer than organization development. To assume that OD can affect bureaucracy is to believe that all or most OD consultants are Davids facing Goliath. The analogy is about right for age and size comparisons but not for level of skill and quality of instrument. And since we are not as skillful as David, we should not rely on only one instrument anyway. Just to work with groups, particularly at the "shop floor," is to intervene at the micro-level and is therefore limited. I have recommended the above three interventions for emphasis and as a priority, but at the same time I view them as a minimum and as supplementary--not as the only ones.

OD consultants should continue fine tuning, keeping in mind the risk of furthering the organizational imperative, but they should also attempt to change bureaucracy in some fundamental ways. OD is one way that is still worth pursuing (pp. 434-435). (Quoted by permission of JAI Press.)

88. Burke, W. Warner. *Organizational development: Principles and practices.* Boston: Little, Brown, 1981. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

By one of the spokesmen for the field.

89. Burke, W. Warner and Leonard D. Goodstein (Eds.). *Trends and issues in OD: Current theory and practice.* San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1980. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

Contains 19 chapters resulting from the 1980 OD Conference.

90. Burns, Mildred L. The effects of feedback and commitment to change on the behavior of elementary school principals. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1977, 13(2), 159-166. [S, Int, OrF, Lea]

This article reports an experimental study of the effects of feedback and commitment to change on administrative behavior. The experiment was designed to test the differential effectiveness of giving three kinds of feedback, both Ideal and Actual, Ideal Only, and Actual Only, . . . and to examine the effects of those treatments under three "commitment" conditions. It was conducted in a stratified random sample of public elementary schools of California. . . . Ideal Only was the most effective and Actual Only the least effective type of feedback given. In some instances, Actual-Only Feedback appeared to inhibit positive change. The condition of stated commitment to "work on" particular principal behaviors tended to inhibit positive change. (authors' abstract)

For similar studies, see Daw and Gage (1967), Gage, Runkel, and Chatterjee (1963), Hovenier (1966), Margaret Nelson (1972), Schmuck (1973), and Tuckman, McCall, and Hyman (1969).

91. Burr, Ann M. The process of a principal's retirement and its effect on a school community. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1977. [S, Int, OrF, Lea, Lin, OD]

This case study describes the events in preparation for the retirement of the principal of an elementary school. The district's cadre of organization development specialists was not successful in helping the school to prepare for the transition from one principal to another.

92. Callan, Mary F. and William P. Kentta. A backward glance over traveled roads: An evaluation of the Eugene Cadre. Eugene, OR: Eugene School District 4J, 1979. (mimeo) [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

On most of the questionnaire items having to do with knowledge, district personnel showed good levels of knowledge about the Cadre's purposes and methods. There was some confusion about whether the Cadre dealt with personal problems (it does not), and some persons thought erroneously that the Cadre was still affiliated with the University of Oregon. On every one of the attitude items, the favorable ratings exceeded the unfavorable by percentages ranging from 7 to 59.

93. Camaren, Reuben J. Innovation as a factor influencing the diffusion and adoption process. *Dissertation Abstracts*, 1966, 27(3-A), 621. [S, Int, OrF, Lin]

The purpose of this study was to determine whether innovations . . . influence a differentiation in their social itinerary. A curricular practice (PSSC Physics) and an organizational form of instruction (Team Teaching) were the innovations selected. . . . Findings indicate that diffusion of an innovation is not the result of a single element but rather the result of a complex set of elements, including some pertaining to the innovation. . . .

In general, more rapid acceptance is accorded innovations whose consequences of adoption are insular rather than pervasive, which focus on improving process rather than products, and whose acts of adoption are overt rather than ideological. . . . Innovations involving changes which relate directly to the improvement of instruction are difficult to adopt wihtout the pre-trained recipient. -- NIMH (1971)

94. Cameron, William G. The in-service school development project: A case study in consultancy for planned change. Submitted as a doctoral dissertation to the University of New England (Australia), 1982. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

. . . the following project characteristics and resource commitments were agreed upon: (1) The project would involve a team of consultant/change-agents whose role would be to assist school staffs to attain agreed-upon initiatives for school improvement. (2) The consultant/change-agents would be selected from *teachers*. . . and the team would consist of from six to eight members. (3) The consultant/change-agents would be released from their own school for *one half-day per week* to carry out a consultancy role in *other* schools. (4) The consultant/change-agents would work in *pairs*--each pair being involved with *one* school during the term of the project. . . . (5) The decision to participate in the project would rest with school staffs. (6)

The schools involved in the project would *not* receive any additional resources for participating in the project. (7) The project would run for a period of approximately *two* years (pp. 90-91).

Entry Phase: (1) The use of *Survey and Feedback* to generate information and 'unfreeze' the current situation, (2) the use of a withdrawal weekend to create a *Training Laboratory* where commitment to the program could be fostered and acceptance of the consultants enhanced, (3) the choice of use of *Consultants* so that needs for *control*, *achievement* and *affiliation* were moderate; *peers* were selected, i.e., other teachers within the Region; *middle-status* positions were selected; the position of consultant was accepted by the staff as *legitimate*; the importance of a low-key *introduction* was recognized; in the first instance, consultants acted solely as *reflective/supportive* agents of the staffs' desire to change.

Collaboration Phase: (1) The use of *Temporary Task* groups from the staff which would place an emphasis on *Task*, use *peer pressure* to encourage conformity, be *representative* of interest groups in the school, [and] be a *link* with the larger organization, (2) the consultants at this collaboration phase would be attempting behaviors which demonstrated their *creditibility* as helpers in a problem situation [and] showed they could be *trusted* by staff.

Withdrawal: The identification and training of suitable staff members to be *internal* consultants who would gradually take over the helping role (pp. 103-104).

What did staff groups actually do to bring about change. . .?
. . . a variety of activities which involved all staff members, but particularly problem-solving group members, in gathering information, making decisions and taking action. Activities included: surveys, inventories, displays, purchasing resources, developing curriculum, role-plays, mounting inservice courses, developing teaching aids, negotiating roles and evaluating outcomes. Overall, a great deal of energy was expended by school staffs in assuming a planning and development role, in addition to their normal teaching duties.

How did school staffs evaluate the effectiveness of change efforts?
. . . While there are some reservations, the *majority* of responses indicated that staff feel there has been an improvement in the areas where change was attempted. This improvement has involved knowledge, skill, and attitudinal change for individual staff members in various aspects of their teaching role and professional relationships. Improvement in the organization and use of school resources is also evident (p. 388).

While differences in staff perceptions between the pre- and post-tests are small (65 out of 76 being no more than 10%), there is nevertheless a general trend which suggests that staff in the 'experimental' schools are more critical of their schools' work process in the four constructs than they were at the beginning of the project. This 'negative' trend was totally unexpected, since it seems to contradict all the other survey data gathered from staffs during the project. If it is assumed that staffs in both groups of schools have been open in both pre- and post-test responses and that the staff turnover has not greatly contaminated the results, then some attempt at interpretation should be made.

One obvious interpretation is that the 'experimental' schools overall have become less effective in the four designated areas. This explanation, however, does not concur with the staff opinions reported above. Another interpretation which might explain the change in perception is that staffs in the three 'experimental' schools have changed the critical standards by which they evaluate their schools. Through involvement in a project which stressed collaboration, positive work-relations, problem-solving and innovativeness, staff members may have developed greater expectations in these areas and have become more critically aware of short-comings in their schools' operations. This possibility is supported by . . . [Golembiewski, Billingsley, and Yeager (1976)] (pp. 417-418).

95. Campbell, John P. On the nature of organizational effectiveness. In P.S. Goodman, J.M. Pennings, and associates, New perspectives on organizational effectiveness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1977; Chapter 2. [N, OrF]

A review of the standard views. Ends by urging organizations to develop their own theories of effectiveness.

96. Canfield, Jack, and Harold C. Wells. 100 ways to enhance self-concept in the classroom. Prentice-Hall: Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1976. [S, Cl, Ef]

Actually, there are 105 class activities, all described in clear details. They promise hours of well-spent class time, used in developing children's self-images. The activities are sequenced into seven divisions: Getting Started, My Strengths, Who Am I?, Accepting my Body, Where Am I Going?, The Language of Self, and Relationships to Others. An annotated bibliography suggests books, organizations, and periodicals for additional leads on self-development. This book will help those practitioners who are looking for ways to implement their board's objectives for character development, citizenship, and self-knowledge. -- D.M. Wirick in Educational Leadership, 34, 234-235.

97. Capelle, Ronald G. Changing human systems. Toronto, Ontario: International Systems Institute, 1979. [N, Int, OrF]

Do you know that it is possible to intervene at seven human systems levels: intrapersonal, interpersonal, group, intergroup, organization, interorganization, and community? Do you have models for understanding how these seven human systems levels function? Do you have models for understanding how these seven human systems levels change? Do you have models for understanding the role of the helping professional in the change process at the seven human systems levels? Do you understand the similarities and differences in both assessing and intervening at the seven human systems levels? Do you have models for understanding at which human systems level (or levels) to intervene when it is possible to interene at several different levels?

If the answer to any of the above is "no," this book is for you! -- Publisher's blurb.

98. Caplan, Nathan and Stephen D. Nelson. On being useful: The nature and consequences of psychological research on social problems. American Psychologist, 1973, 28(3), 199-211. [N, Int]

The major conclusion . . . is that person-blame interpretations are in everyone's interest except those subjected to analysis (p. 210).

The purpose of this article was to show why we must be wary of uncritically accepting the idea that the promotion and dissemination of social science knowledge ar intrinsically good, morale, and wise (p. 211).

99. Caplan, Nathan, Andrea Morrison, and Russel J. Stambaugh. The use of social science knowledge in policy decisions at the national level. Ann Arbor: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, 1975. [N, Lin]

Interviews with 204 upper-level federal executives in the United States Government identified 575 diverse instances of policy-related social science use, half of them in matters of considerable national importance, and 94% of them based on government-funded research. There was a high level of receptivity to social science knowledge in policy formation, but actual utilization was negatively related to interest in government careers. Political implications were major determinants to use or non-use of research findings. Effective knowledge utilization may depend on knowledge "transfer" groups able to translate social science information, deal with value issues and bureaucratic factors, and gain the trust of policy makers. -- Publisher's blurb

100. Carey, Alex. The Hawthorne studies: A radical criticism. American Sociological Review, 1967, 32(3), 403-416. [N, Int, OrF]

A detailed comparison between the Hawthorne conclusions and the Hawthorne evidence shows the conclusions to be almost wholly unsupported. The evidence reported by the Hawthorne investigators is found to be consistent with the view that material, and especially financial, reward is the principal influence on work, morale, and behavior. Questions are raised about how it was possible for studies so nearly devoid of scientific merit, and conclusions so little supported by evidence, to gain so influential and respected a place within scientific disciplines and to hold that place for so long. (authors' abstract)

101. Carlson, Richard O. Environmental constraints and organizational consequences: The public school and its clients. In Behavioral

Science and Educational Administration. Sixty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964; pp. 262-276. Reprinted in J. Victor Baldridge and Terrence E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1975; pp. 187-200. [S, Int, OrF, Env]

A scholarly presentation which develops a typology of organization-client relationships in service organizations and then suggests some of the consequences and implications of the type of relationships clients have with public schools. Develops the notions of wild and domesticated organizations, proposing a method of dealing with change in them. Attends to the question "What mechanisms are used by public school systems to adapt to an unselected clientele?" -- Culver and Hoban (1973, p. 248).

102. Carlson, Richard O. Adoption of educational innovations. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1965. [S, Int, OrF]

An examination of the role of social struture as it influences the communication about the adoption of new educational practices. The final chapter is a case study of difficulties in adopting programmed instruction.

Sets forth three criteria affecting adoption: (1) the characteristics of the unit, (2) the way the adopting unit is joined to communication channels, and (3) the position the adopting unit holds in the social structure of like units. Interesting data are given on characteristics of innovators and unanticipated consequences associated with adoptions of educational innovations. -- Culver and Hoban (1973, p. 248).

103. Carlson, Richard O. School superintendents: Careers and performance. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill, 1972. [S, OrF, Lea]

Chapter 4 describes the characteristics and commitments that bear on the careers of the two kinds [career-bound and place-bound] of school superintendents. . . . career decisions, preparation for the career, and career orientations. . . . Chapter 6 . . . indicates the circumstances that lead an organization to select a career-bound or place-bound executive. . . . The next three chapters show the organizational consequences of employment of the one type rather than the other. . . . Chapter 11 . . . summarizes what the terms in office of place-bound executives mean for organizational development. . . (p. 5).

104. Carlson, Richard O. Orderly Career Opportunities. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1979. [S, OrF, Env, Lea]

Careers are managed in complex organizations by policies which indicate who is and who is not eligible for promotion from one position to the next higher position. Usually such policies incorporate rules regarding some combination of experience, seniority, performance, and training. Orderly career opportunities are affected by the choice of policies. This book analyzes the effect of various sets of policies on the opportunities of school administrators. It is a cross cultural, comparative study of the orderly career opportunities for school administrators in two states in Australia and one school district in Oregon, where different policies are enforced. Additionally, the analysis attends to the interaction among career opportunities, personnel policies, vacancy chains, and regeneration rates. While educational institutions are the focus of the study, the theory and analysis are applicable to other organizations. Moreover, the book provides new insight into the dilemmas and opportunities of equality in employment. -- Publisher's blurb

105. Carnoy, Martin. Education as cultural imperialism. New York: David McKay, 1974. [S, Env]

This book is one of the few current scholarly treatments of the critical problem of the lack of congruence between societal ideals and observable evidence regarding the function of schooling in industrial society. [The author] raises questions and then clearly and concisely presents the evidence in the form of data, theory, and discussion of classical and modern thought. One can easily extrapolate the author's assumptions into one's own frame of reference and contextual fields of interest. This is a refreshing change from the presumptuous and frequently prejudicial pronouncements of most contemporary romantic critics in their idealistic writings of the 1960's.

Although Carnoy would likely disagree with Reimer that School is Dead, he does share some of the same perceptions. Both authors, like Illich, view the public school as the universal church, more sacred than secular institution in technological society. The school is viewed as incorporating and transmitting state ideology as a primary function and conferring social status in proportion to its acceptance. In this sense individualism, creativity, and other idiosyncratic concepts are antithetical to the covert curricula which foster a literate and predictable but mindless population. -- T. Wiggins in American Educational Research Journal, 1975, 12(4), 525. Copywright 1975, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.

106. Cartledge, Gwendolyn and JoAnne F. Milburn. The case for teaching social skills in the classroom: A review. Review of Educational Research, 1978, 48(1), 133-156. [S, Cl, Ef]

The goals to be reached in the academic curriculum are usually clear, but along with the acquisition of intellectual skills, there is another, mostly unarticulated, "hidden" curriculum that has to do with social behaviors, attitudes, and values, and that provides the mechanism through which the school's socializing functions take place (p. 134).

Although concerns are sometimes expressed about the tendencies for schools to encourage and perpetuate obedient, controlled, conforming behavior in classrooms, evidence from various sources indicates that such behaviors are correlated highly with academic achievement. Such behaviors as attending, remaining on task, volunteering answers, complying with teacher requests, and interacting with teachers and peers about school work have been shown to bear a positive relationship to success in learning (p. 150).

We know that certain social behaviors are important for school success and that teachers are in general agreement about which these behaviors are. We know also that effective techniques exist for the teaching of social skills, but that social behaviors learned in one setting may not transfer to another or be maintained over time without some programming for transfer and maintenance. It appears that the most effective setting for teaching the social skills that will facilitate learning is the classroom itself. . . .

An attempt to go beyond the trial-and-error-learning which is characteristic of the "hidden curriculum" and build instruction in interpersonal and task-related social skills into the school curriculum could result in both heightened teacher effectiveness in the presentation of academic subjects and enhanced student learning of academic subjects, along with improved relationships between children and others in their environment (p. 151). Copyright 1978, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.

107. Center for New Schools. Strengthening alternative high schools. Harvard Educational Review, 1972, 42(3), 313-350. [S, Int, OrF]

The authors first present a case study of student involvement in decision making at Chicago's Metro High School, emphasizing the influence of the staff, student subgroups, and the school program upon the development of the decision-making process. Then they trace patterns of development common to alternative high schools, criticizing the notion of "organic growth" with which many alternative schools begin. Finally, the authors propose a constructive, supportive role for research, evaluation, and feedback to strengthen alternative schools within a framework of shared analysis and decision making. (journal abstract)

108. Center for New Schools. A multi-method study of the development and effects of an alternative high school learning environment. Chicago: author, 1975. [S, Int, OrF]

This report describes a study concerning organizational processes in an alternative high school without walls (Metro High School, which is part of the Chicago public school system) and its effects on students during the first eighteen months of operation. Student development comparisons are made between a group attending Metro and a control group, both randomly chosen from a pool of volunteers who wanted to attend Metro.

After eighteen months, . . . experimental. . . students had made significantly greater advances in reading achievement, perceived the Metro program as significantly different in its overall climate in terms of a variety of humanistic goals, and had significantly more contact with a variety of urban individuals and institutions compared to [the] control . . . students. (from the introduction)

109. Chalupsky, Albert B. and Gary J. Coles. *Exploring the impact of educational innovation: Overview for Project Longstep*. Palo Alto, CA: American Institutes for Research, 1976. A summary of the findings of Coles, Chalupsky, Everett, Shaycoft, Rodabaugh, and Danoff. *Longitudinal study of educational practices, Vol. I: Impact of educational innovation on student performance: Project methods and findings for three cohorts*; of Coles and Chalupsky, *Vol. I supplement: Impact of educational innovation on student performance: Overall findings for reading and arithmetic*; of Coles and Chalupsky, *Vol II: Innovative school environments and student outcomes*; of Everett, *Vol. II appendix report: A preliminary study of the relevance of a standardized test for measuring achievement gains in innovative arithmetic programs*; and of Chalupsky and Coles, *Project LONGSTEP memorandum report: Parental educational expectations and their impact on student outcomes*; all published by American Institutes for Research, 1976. [S, CI, Ef, Int]

The educational innovations included team teaching, multimedia emphasis, unique school design, use of paraprofessionals, variations in scheduling, and teacher-developed materials, as well as independent study, student selection of materials, and a number of other practices typically associated with individualized instruction. . . . Some 30,000 students, 80 schools, and 1,500 teachers were involved. . . (pp. 2-3).

The expectation that substantial yearly gains in student achievement would occur for a sample of intensive, innovative, educational programs was *not* supported by these findings. . . . Unquestionably large gains in reading, language, and arithmetic skills, over and above those expected on the basis of pretest and socioeconomic status, were found to occur in some of the participating schools (p. 5).

. . . innovative school environments did *not* demonstrate a substantially positive impact on either achievement or student attitudes (pp. 8-9).

Parental expectations . . . concerning how far in school they want their children to go showed a positive relationship to children's attitudes toward school, regardless of how accurately children perceived those expectations (p. 12).

110. Chapman, David W. and Sigrid M. Hutcheson. Attrition from teaching careers: A discriminant analysis. *American Educational Research Journal*, 1982, 19(1), 93-105. Copyright 1982, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [S, OrF, Mot]

. . . those who left and those who did not leave teaching differed significantly in their self-rated skills and abilities. Further, they differed significantly in the importance they assigned to selected criteria of success.

Across both elementary and high school levels, people remaining in teaching were characterized as having greater organizational skills (organizing time, developing new approaches, planning and organizing activities). Those leaving teaching were characterized as having greater analytic skills (analyzing and evaluating, interpreting numerical data).

. . . individuals who left elementary teaching rated themselves higher on their ability to persuade others to accept their ideas. . . . The need to persuade (as opposed to merely present or explain information) is more apt to emerge when working with high school or college students. Indeed, differences between the TEACH and NONTEACH groups in the ability to persuade do not appear in the high school analysis. High school teachers do not rate their skill at persuading others to accept their ideas to be any lower than those who left teaching. . . .

At the high school level, NONTEACH respondents were more positive about their ability to cooperate with a work team. This is consistent with the observation made earlier that teachers tend to work alone, cut off from the other colleagues. NONTEACH respondents appear to have gone into careers which often involve collaboration and team work.

. . . the authors . . . hypothesized that individuals leaving teaching would assign greater importance to job autonomy and salary increases, which those remaining in teaching would assign more importance to recognition by other people, particularly supervisors and friends. The results . . . at both the elementary and high school level support these hypotheses. . . . This finding tends to support the earlier speculation that being alone in a classroom with students is not what is typically meant by job autonomy. Individuals remaining in teaching were more oriented toward interpersonal rewards: the approval and recognition of supervisors, family and friends. Again, whether their values led them into teaching or whether those values developed in response to the limitations on other types of rewards cannot be discerned from a correlational study. What the results clearly indicate is that the quality of the interpersonal relationships between teachers and administrators and the positive value and recognition that teachers receive from their larger circle of friends is of particular importance in teacher's self-assessment of their success (pp. 103-104).

111. Charters, Werrett W., Jr. Stability and change in the communication structure of school faculties. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1969, 5, 15-38. [S, OrF]

Using data from several of his communication studies, the author seeks to explain the strong persistence in patterns of staff contact in a high school between the spring of one academic year and the fall of the next, despite a 50% turnover of personnel in the interim. He concludes that the stability of the communication structure depends to an important extent upon the stability of the scheme for dividing the school's labor and upon the constancy of the physical arrangement of work stations. -- Maguire, Temkin, and Cummings (1971).

112. Charters, Werret W., Jr. Measuring the implementation of differentiated staffing: A comparison of two elementary schools. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1973. Available in photocopy from the Center. [S, OrF, Tea]

We have two purposes. . . . First, the comparative framework is a convenient vehicle for making available to the research and development community the fruits of our work in developing measures of a school's instructional organization and related matters. . . . Second, we believe the comparisons have substantive interest in themselves. Here was one elementary school that, for a full school year, had been the target of well-financed efforts to implement a major innovation; here was a neighboring school that had followed its natural course during the year, without the intervention of a formal program for change. In what respects, if any, did they differ at the end of the year? (pp. xxii - xiii).

There was no indication that responsibility for instructional decisions had shifted to colleague groups in Efstutt as one might expect under the team teaching provisions of a DS program; only in a few areas of instructional choice did Efstutt teachers, more often than Gordon teachers, report "close colleagues" as an important limitation on their freedom. The most often-noted constraints on classroom decisions in both schools were impersonal in origin (limiations of time, space, resources, schedules) rather than constraints of district policy or those imposed by administrative or supervisory personnel. On this matter, however, there were small but consistent differences between the schools: Efstutt teachers more regularly reported the impersonal types of constraint as limiting them than did their counterparts in Gordon (p. 93).

The detailed comparisons between Efstutt and Gordon recorded instances, time and again, of energy diversion among Efstutt teachers--heavy meeting attendance, attention to problems of pupil decorum, work in supervising teacher aides, concern with coordinating the instructional program, amount of discussion devoted to gripes and concerns about work, constraints on teaching of time, space, and scheduling, and so on. These are costs to instruction, per se. In our view, it is unreasonable for educators to expect to see gains in pupil achievement at the end of one or two years of implementation and, indeed, to judge an innovation as a "failure" when the gains are not forthcoming. Energy diversions entail personal costs to teachers, too. If the costs run too high, teachers can be counted on to forego change in order to concentrate their energies on carrying out, in the familiar manner, the instructional tasks for which they hold themselves responsible. When excessive, the costs of change carry the imminent threat of staff disaffection with the innovation (p. 97).

113. Charters, Werrett W., Jr. The control of microeducational policy in elementary schools. In S. B. Bacharach (Ed.), Organizational behavior in schools and districts. New York: Praeger, 1981, pp. 277-312. [S, OrF]

We refer to the decision maker(s) as the input population and those whose task performance is expected to be governed by the decisions as the output population (p. 280).

. . . several classification principals permitted the specification of five decision types. . . .

Outside or Type O: a structure in which neither the school's principal nor any teacher affected by the decision (the output population) is a member of the input population. . . . *Principal Alone, or Type P*: a structure in which the principal of the school is the sole agent responsible for reaching the decision; no member of the output population is included in the input population. . . . *Shared, or Type S*: a structure in which at least one member of the output population joins other, unaffected personnel in comprising the input population. . . . *Collegial, or Type C*: a structure in which the input population is composed exclusively of teaching personnel within the school. The decision-making body could be a teacher committee, the members of a unit, the faculty as a whole, a group of unit leaders without the principal, and so on. . . . *Discretion, or Type D*: the limiting condition in which a teacher reaches an individual decision regarding task performance that governs no one's behavior but his or her own. . . (pp. 281-282).

The general observation of increase in collegial decisions in most of the Multiunit schools had been confirmed earlier using standard analysis procedures. . . (p. 300). We can ask, however, whether the evidence indicates that the trajectories of change toward a collegial decision structure occurred regularly at the expense of certain other decision types or at the expense of Type D in the instructional processes domain and Type P in the deployment domain. We used selected schools to answer the question. . . (p. 306). In sum, neither the discretion of individual teachers nor the power of principals acting on their own was substantially affected by the growth of collegiality in these Multiunit schools (p. 307). Reprinted by permission of the publisher from S.B. Bacharach (Ed.), *Organizational behavior in schools and districts*. Copyright 1981 by Praeger, New York.

114. Charters, Werrett W., Jr. and John E. Jones. On the risk of appraising non-events in program evaluation. *Educational Researcher*, 1973, 2(11), 5-8. An earlier and longer version appears in J. Victor Baldridge and Terrence E. Deal (Eds.), *Managing change in educational organizations*. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1975; pp. 341-353. [S, Er]

. . . characterization of the independent variable is a major bug-a-boo of program evaluation . . . experimental programs rarely "hold still" for the evaluator; they are subject to modification, refinement, and re-interpretation as they are put into practice in the field. Beyond this, however, evaluators encounter difficulty in describing in principle the essential dimensions according to which a proposed program differs from a conventional one . . . . A serious consequence of slighting the independent variable is that elaborately designed evaluation studies may sometimes end by appraising non-events, with no one the wiser. . . . These observations are far from original with us, but the apposition of two studies recently completed at the University of Oregon so aptly illustrates the point that we feel impelled to report them. (from the article)

115. Charters, Werrett W., Jr. and Roland J. Pellegrin. Barriers to the innovative process: Four case studies of differentiated staffing. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1972, 9(1), 3-14. [S, Int, OrF]

Researchers . . . spent the 1970-71 school year conducting on-site observational studies of four schools in their first year of implementing Differentiated Staffing. This article describes the characteristic course of events in the schools during that year and summarizes the chronic problems of change revealed by the observations. (authors' abstract)

116. Cherns, Albert B. Can behavioral science help design organizations? Organizational Dynamics, 1977, 5(4), 44-64. [N, Int, OrF]

Cherns discusses reasons traditional organization design is no longer adequate and notes that traditional design (division of labor; hierarchical coordination) not only conforms to McGregor's "Theory X", but in part creates and to a large extent reinforces Theory X behavior by workers and by managers. Cherns outlines in some detail how he works with top management in the development of an organizational redesign project and presents ten "Basic Principles of Organization Design" . . . .

One principle states that the design process must be fully participative. Cherns does not mean "bottom-up," but "middle-out," in that all middle-management functions are represented on the initial design team. . . . As each task aspect is studied, people who would be responsible for that area of the work join the design team. . . .

Principle 2 is that only critical task features should be specified by the designers. Managers and workers should develop full specifications, especially with respect to how a task is to be accomplished. Principle 3 states that "unprogrammed" events . . . should be dealt with as near to where they occur as possible, rather than being referred "up the line" for managerial decision. The fourth principle is that the organization design should allow goals to be reached in more than one way. Principle 5 is that boundaries--task groups, departments, etc.--should be determined on the basis of need for shared information, knowledge, or experience on the part of the persons within the unit. Provision of information directly to the person or group that will act on it is Principle 6. The seventh principle is to provide social support systems. . . . Principle 8 is that provision of a high quality of work life for organization members is a prime design objective. Principle 9 is to create a transitional organization to carry out the new design plans--a third design, in addition to the old and the new, which must itself be planned and organized and which *people must learn to use in order to implement the new design. The* tenth principle is that when the bridge is finally painted, it is time to start over. . . . (Reprinted from a review by Marshall Sashkin in Group and Organization Studies, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 507-508, copyright 1977 by University Associates, with permission of Sage Publications, Inc.)

117. Chesler, Mark A. and Robert Fox. Teacher peer relations and educational change. National Educational Association Journal, 1967, 56(5), 25-26. [S, Int, OrF]

The authors explore and stress the importance of interpersonal relationships within the school as factors in the change process. . . . Generalizations drawn from this research review include: (1) opportunities for formal and informal associations with colleagues encourage teachers to share their ideas about change; (2) sometimes the faculty is so organized it blocks the sharing and dissemination of new ideas; (3) teachers who, as a group, feel powerless, isolated uninvolved, and dissatisfied with their roles, are not likely to instigate change; (4) teachers need to feel involved and potent in their organization in order to support educational change, . . . (5) in establishing a healthy climate for change, there is first a need to develop ways for individual teachers to share new ideas with other staff members and gain support for worthy innovations; (6) adopting new administrative styles that decentralize decisions making enable teachers to be involved in developing innovations and change; and (7) in-service programs help teachers perfect problem-solving skills, exploring interpersonal processes, openness of communication, and analysis of the field of forces affecting efforts to change. -- NIMH (1971).

118. Chesler, Mark A., James E. Crowfoot, and Bunyan I. Bryant, Jr. Using institutional conflict to achieve change in schools. In M.M. Milstein (Ed.), Schools, conflict, and change. New York: Teachers College Press, 1980; pp. 30-49. [S, Int, OrF, Env]

As a result of the contradictions and dilemmas in the roles and methods of consultants and social scientists, people developing conflict-oriented change strategies will have to create and share relevant information on their own. They need to expand current information networks, increase discriminating analyses about who can be served best be alternative change strategies, and become more active in challenging misconceptions and partial information about conflict strategies of school and community change. Otherwise, they will continue to be locked into consensus-oriented approaches to school reform and restructuring. The media, consultants, and the scientific community all have helped emphasize the consensus approach to such a degree that it often appears as the only viable and legitimate option. While we have no inherent objection to this approach, it is clear it is a limited option, and an option that works only under certain prescribed circumstances. Under other circumstances, low-power groups in particular must know about, be able to use, and find help in implementing other strategies of school change (pp. 46-47).

119. Chesler, Mark A., Richard A. Schmuck, and Ronald Lippitt. The principal's role in facilitating innovation. Theory into Practice, 1963, 2(5), 269-277. [S, Int, OrF, Lea]

The authors report on a pilot study that was designed to determine the influence of the principal's behavior on the development and sharing of innovative classroom practices (i.e., new to that particular teacher). Teaching is improved when teachers can share ideas and experiences, and staff interpersonal relations influence such sharing. The role of the principal in this process is both direct, in encouraging or discouraging an atmosphere supporting experimentation and sharing, and indirect, in that his style of leadership may encourage staff relations that make the teachers comfortable when discussing innovative attempts. The factors most relevant to teachers' initiating creative efforts were found to be: (1) new practices could help solve problems important to them and their students, (2) a given practice is easily adaptable to their own teaching style and therefore does not necessitate a great expenditure of time and energy, and (3) the school administration will support new practices. -- NIMH (1971).

120. Chesler, Mark A. and others. Planning educational change, Vol. 2: Human resources in school desegregation. Washington, DC: Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1969. [S, Int, OrF, Env]

Though addressing a specific problem (desegregation) and specific personnel (school superintendents), this manual outlines a process using planned steps: identification of goals, diagnosis of the situation, development of plans, feedback and evaluation, and recycling steps in which further goals are established for continuing change efforts. Planning Educational Change, Vol. 3, Integrating the Desegregated School, Department of Health, Education and Welfare (HEW), Washington, 1970, discusses the principal as leader in the change process, Chapter 6-9. -- Culver and Hoban (1973, p. 249).

121. Chevalier Michel, Leslie Bailey, and Tom Burns. Toward a framework for large-scale problem management. Human Relations, 1974, 27(1), 43-69. [N, Int, OrF, Env]

Sets forth four systems of activity: social, technical, environmental, and material; five phases of decision process: articulation, goal-definition, design, action, and evaluation; three classes of changes: those to satisfy a general class of interest, those providing instrumental, social or material changes, and those involving specific or functional interests; three degrees of certainty: actual, emerging, and potential; three scales of interaction: context, system-context, and in-system; three intensities of conditions of change: stable, adapting, and transforming; and three components of organizational planning: operations, forward, and future planning. Shows how these concepts can guide large-scale planning and action.

122. Child, John. Participation, organization, and social cohesion. Human Relations, 1976, 29(5), 429-451. [N, OrF, Env]

There is a demand for the extension of participation in organizational decision-making. If realized, this should strengthen the stability of a democratic society through providing more people with a meaningful experience of democratic processes. At the same time, however, organizations are continuing to become bigger and their control more centralized. This trend is illustrated for Britain. It leads to an increasing remoteness of decision-making policy issues away from employees and members of the public. The effects of bureaucratization, which accompanies growth, exacerbate the remoteness. So far as participation is concerned, a growing contradiction is therefore emerging between social ideology and social reality, and this is not being given adequate recognition. The likely result is a weakening commitment to collective social objectives and a declining perceived legitimacy of social institutions. It is concluded that a resolution of this problem would be assisted by recognizing how the economic advantages of large-scale organization have been exaggerated and how there are organizational design possibilities for avoiding the socially less desirable aspects of bureaucracy. (author's abstract)

123. Claiborn, William L. and Robert Cohen (Eds.) *School intervention.* New York: Behavioral Publications, 1973. [S, CI, Int, OrF]

An interesting and highly informative series of summary reports on innovative mental health projects directed at school-age children, youth, and their families. The book is divided into five sections with the section on School Intervention Programs containing several examples of intervention strategies. The exemplars on behavior modification and organizational training present some excellent ideas for establishing a collaborative relationship with school personnel. Other chapters in this section contain suggested intervention approaches used by consultants while working with classroom teachers, student dissidents, and as facilitators of school desegregation efforts. Also, there are sections on the philosophy, training, and preparation of school interventionists; evaluation of intervention programs; and a final unit that has summations and recommendations. -- Howard K. Cameron in *Contemporary Psychology*, 1975, 20(6), 506-507.

124. Clark, David L. In consideration of goal-free planning: The failure of traditional planning systems in education. In D.L. Clark, S. McKibbin, and M. Malkas (Eds.), *New perspectives on planning in educational organizations*. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1980; pp. 1-16. [S, OrF]

Practitioners have long chafed under the strictures of goal-based, rational planning systems. Professional planners have sought to loosen these strictures; or fine-tune the systems' techniques; or supplement them with added entries; or rationalize the failures of the planning systems in use. Meanwhile, organizational theorists have been challenging the *appropriateness* of goal-based, rational, sequential planning on the basis of its assumptions, to wit:

1. Not only is it unnecessary to insist that goals are on a priori condition for organizational planning, it is unreasonable to assume

high levels of consensus about goals within organizations. In fact, it may not even be useful to retain the goal-based paradigm as a conception of organizations.

2. The image of educational institutions as rational bureaucracies might be inaccurate and unrealistic.

3. The linkage and responsiveness assumed by traditional planning is seldom found in educational organizations. They are almost always loosely coupled systems.

If one or more of these challenges were accurate, it would mean that *the failure of goal-based, rational planning systems is grounded not in technical details of the systems but in the discrepancy between the assumptions underlying them and the reality of what actually occurs in educational organizations. The logic-in-use in most educational organizations most of the time may be so disparate from the reconstructed logic suoporting rational planning systems that no level of improvement in the design or implementation of such systems could significantly affect the usefulness of the systems* (pp. 4-5).

125. Clark, David L. A sampler of alternative perspectives and models for viewing educational organizations. In D.L. Clark, S. McKibbin, and M. Malkas (Eds.), *Alternative perspectives for viewing educational organizations.* San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1981; pp. 31-49. [S, OrF, Env, Mot]

This has been a long (albeit grossly over-simplified) journey through a range of alternative perspectives from which one might address educational organizations. Let us review these perspectives, noting some insights each might provide.

1. *Loosely coupled systems*--Organizational functions often assumed to be sequential and responsive (e.g., goal setting and operating activities) may, in fact, be neither sequential (activities may precede goals) nor responsive (activities may not match goals).

2. *Organized anarchies*--Schools, colleges, and other educational agencies display problematic preferences, unclear technology, and fluid participation. They seldom solve problems and, in most instances, would not know if a problem had been solved.

3. *Incentive system paradigm*--Personal satisfactions and rewards supersede organizational goals/purposes in determining organizational actions.

4. *Natural selection model*--Most changes that occur in educational systems are short-term adaptations, untested, opportunistic, based on idiosyncratic selection criteria.

5. *Marxian perspective*--Organizations, organizational forms, and the structures employed to study them are creatures of the historical

processes that gave rise to them. Many of the structural contradictions in educational organizations are overlooked because they support pervasive social values.

6. *Dialectical view*--If structural elements of educational organizations can be dereified, they can be examined for what they are--organizational variables, alternative structural characteristics, optional organizational forms.

7. *Adaptive implementation*--In most organizations most of the time, programmed implementation of innovations will fail because they are not responsive to the school context.

8. *Collectivist perspective*--In many organizations subunits and ad hoc groups in education, authority resides in the collectivity; social controls, relations, and organizational rewards are primarily personalistic; and the organizational status structure is egalitarian.

9. *Organizations as clans*--The clan concept may best explain the maverick urban school or, for that matter, the elite graduate school. The process of socialization is the source of control.

10. *Institutionalized organizations*--Schools and colleges can be better understood if one assumes that their success depends on their ability to conform to social or institutional rules (accreditation, certification) rather than their ability to enhance student achievement (pp. 45-46).

126. Coad, R.A., C. Miskel, and E. van Meter. The effects of an organization development program on satisfaction, group process, climate, leadership, and student achievement. Paper read at meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, 1976. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Seventy-one percent of the staff of four schools agreed to participate. The eight external consultants did not operate as a team; they used their own particular methods. On almost every measure, the control group scored higher than the trainee group. On many measures, both groups declined, but the trainee group declined at a greater rate.

127. Coch, Lester and John R. P. French, Jr. Overcoming resistance to change. *Human Relations*, 1948, 1, 415-556. Reprinted in Guy E. Swanson, Theodore N. Newcomb, and Eugene L. Hartley (Eds.), *Readings in social psychology*. New York: Holt, 1952; pp. 474-490. Also in Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander (Eds.), *Group dynamics: Research and theory*. Evanston, IL: Row, Peterson, 1953; pp. 257-279. Also in Eleanor E. Maccoby, T.M. Newcomb, and E.L. Hartley (Eds.), *Readings in social psychology*. New York: Holt, 1958; pp. 233-279. Also in Harold Proshansky and Bernard Seidenberg (Eds.), *Basic studies in social psychology*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1965; pp. 444-460. [N, Int, OrF]

A study was done to determine why retraining after transfer of an experienced employee took longer than training a new employee. It was found that conflict between two forces, motivation toward reaching the production goal and difficulty of the job, produced frustration. This frustration caused a high rate of absenteeism and turnover both right after transfer and just before reaching the production goal. The first peak in rate of turnover, after transfer, was due to job difficulty; the second peak was believed to be due to cohesiveness of the work group. If the cohesive group is antagonistic toward management then they often set their own production goals below management's. An experiment was set up in which the transferred groups had either no participation, participation through representation, or total participation in planning their new working conditions. It was found that the rate of retraining was directly proportional to the amount of participation; the rate of turnover, inversely proportional. -- NIMH (1971).

Although this work was done in a factory and studied tasks on an assembly line, we include it (1) because the principles of instigating change have some relevance to schools and (2) because the study is an early, classic, seminal, experimental study of organizational change.

Later work along this line includes J.R.P. French, Jr., I.C. Ross, P. Smyth, J.R. Nelson, and S. Kirby. Employee participation in a program of industrial change. Personnel, 1958, 35, 16-29. Also J.R.P. French, Jr., J. Israel, and D. Aas. An experiment on participation in a Norwegian factory. Human Relations, 1960, 13(1), 3-19. Also J.R.P. French, Jr., E. Kay, and H. Meyer. Participation and the appraisal system. Human Relations, 1966, 19(1), 3-20.

128. Coelho, Robert J. Administrative team approach--development and implementation. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Assocation of School Administrators, 1975. ERIC Order No. ED 106 947. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, Tea, OD]

Coelho reports on the development of a district-wide management team in the conservative New England school district where he is superintendent. . . .

The success that Coelho reports is attributable to several factors. First, the district made use of personnel, including systems designers, from a neighboring industrial corporation and a neighboring university. These third-party consultants met initially with the superintendent and his colleagues, who were themselves taking management courses to prepare for these changes. Eventually the consultants [offered] a number of on-site curriculum workshops in problem-solving, leadership, communications skills, and goal-setting for principals and assistant principals. Area supervisors and other middle management personnel attended one-day sessions for 12 consecutive weeks. . . .

Besides the intensive reliance on inservice training and consultants, much of the success of the program was surely due to the willingness of the district to start its organizational reforms at the top. -- Abstracted by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oreogn, in "The Best of ERIC," 1977, No. 28.

129. Cohen, A. and H. Gadon. Changing the management culture in a public school system. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1978, 14(1), 61-78. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Change in school systems often withers from lack of administrative support. The intervention described led to the creation of a new management structure for a public school system, with different decision-making processes, greater administrative involvement, and increased commitment to the total system. On the basis of this consulting experience, a number of propositions for change agents have been formulated that are applicable to and can be tested in other settings. (authors' abstract)

130. Cohen, Elizabeth G. and Eric R. Bredo. Elementary school organization and innovative instructional practices. In J. Victor Baldridge and Terrence E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1975; pp. 133-149. [S, OrF, Tea]

(1) There is a positive association among indicators of complexity of instructional practice across subject matters for a given classroom. (2) Teaming is associated with more highly differentiated and less routinized instructional practice. (3) Within the sample of teams, there is a strong positive correlation between joint teaching and the frequency of the change in membership of student groups. Independent of this association, there is a strong negative correlation between cross-grouping and the frequency of group change. . . . teachers who attempt one complex, innovative instructional practice also attempt others. Likewise, teachers who use traditional methods of grouping and programmed decision making in one subject tend to use these methods in other areas. The data support the prediction of an association between increased complexity in the organization of teachers and increased complexity in the technology of the classroom, especially differentiation of instructional practice (p. 147).

131. Cohen, Elizabeth G., Terrence E. Deal, John W. Meyer, and W. Richard Scott. Technology and teaming in the elementary school. Sociology of Education, 1979, 52, 20-33. [S, Cl, OrF, Tea]

Instructional patterns connected with individualized instruction remained fairly stable over the two-year period of the study. They were not affected by organizational features of the classroom, by organizational or administrative features of the school, or by organizational features of the district. Unlike individualized instruction, however, collaboration among teachers was highly unstable. Teams formed, dissolved, and re-formed, varying in membership even over the two-year period. The data argue that the classroom is a relatively autonomous unit, shielded from formal influences from the school district, community, and even the teacher across the hall.

132. Cohen, Peter A., James A. Kulik, and Chen-Lin C. Kulik. Educational outcomes of tutoring: A meta-analysis of findings. American Educational Research Journal, 1982, 19(2), 237-248. [S, Cl, Ef]

A meta-analysis of findings from 65 independent evaluations of school tutoring programs showed that these programs have positive effects on the academic performance and attitudes of those who receive tutoring. Tutored students outperformed control students on examinations, and they also developed positive attitudes toward the subject matter covered in the tutorial programs. The meta-analysis also showed that tutoring programs have positive effects on children who serve as tutors. Like the children they helped, the tutors gained a better understanding of and developed more positive attitudes toward the subject matter covered in the tutorial program. Participation in tutoring programs had little or no effect, however, on the self-esteem of tutors and tutees. (authors' abstract)

133. Cohen, Stephen P., Herbert C. Kelman, Frederick D. Miller, and Bruce L. Smith. Evolving intergroup techniques for conflict resolution: An Israeli-Palestinian pilot workshop. Journal of Social Issues, 1977, 33(1), 165-189. [N, Int]

The pilot workshop described here included Israeli and Palestinian participants meeting with a team of social scientists who served as a third party. Some of the features of the workshop included use of separate preworkshop sessions with each party to focus on internal group processes; induction of communication marked by an analytic, problem approach to the conflict to replace the legalistic, conflict-expressive approach that generally characterizes communication among conflicting parties; process observations from an intergroup (rather than interpersonal) perspective, linking ongoing interactions to the dynamics of the intergroup conflict; and emphasis on symbolic issues and questions of national identity. Among the issues discussed are definition of the parties to the conflict, characteristics of participants, the context for communication, relationships between intragroup and intergroup processes, nature of the third party and types of interventions, and the relationship of changes manifested in the workshop to changes transferred outside of that setting. (authors' abstract)

134. Coleman, James S. Conflicting theories of social change. American Behavioral Scientist, 1971, 14(5), 633-650. [SN, Int, OrF, Env]

. . . it appears that the very institutions in society that are designed to change individuals have little effect on those very attributes of individuals that many theorists feel are most important for change. . . . The very absence of such institutions in society . . . suggests that modern societies may be very poorly designed for change. It suggests that an institution is missing in modern society, an institution that would bring about these important changes in individuals, making them active, goal-oriented agents. . . . I think the knowledge about socialization and about personality change and motivational change exists to do so; but certainly the schools are not designed for this purpose, nor is any other institution (p. 648).

135. Coleman, James S. The children have outgrown the schools. Psychology Today, 1972, 5(9), pp. 72, 74, 75, 82. Reprinted in the National Elementary Principal, 1972, 52(2), 16-21. [S, Ef, Env]

Suggests that the environment outside the school is now capable of taking over many of the school's classical function, while educational functions traditionally carried on outside the school are now largely missing. (JF in Current Index to Journals in Education, January-June, 1973, p. 654).

136. Coleman, James S., Ernest Q. Campbell, Carol J. Hobson, James McPartland, Alexander M. Mood, Frederic D. Weinfeld, and Robert L. York. Equality of educational opportunity. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966. [S, Ef, OrF, Env]

That students learn more in "good" schools than in "poor" schools has long been accepted as a self-evident fact not requiring vertification. Thus, the finding that schools with widely varying characteristics differs very little in their effects is literally of revolutionary significance. . . . this is not a good study of the effects of education on minority-group performance; it is just the best that has ever been done. -- Robert C. Nichols in Science, 1966, 154(3754), 1312-1314.

As a scientific document the report is a success, but as a political document it is a failure. -- John Harding in Contemporary Psychology, 1969, 14(10), 526-540.

What is fed into the schools in the way of teachers, books, buildings and other resources have much less effect on achievement levels that the students' family background and the social environment of the student body. . . . The most telling factor is the attitude of students toward themselves. When students feel they have control over their environment and destiny, they achieve more. Negroes with this positive self-concept score higher than whites who lack that conviction. Integration on the basis of race and class improves performance in some circumstances. When schools are 50 percent white or higher and 50 percent middle clas or higher, achievement of minority pupils improves without adverse affect on the majority. Both white and minority pupils suffer in achievement when the percentage of whites fall below the 50 percent mark. -- James F. Welsh in Educational Researcher, 1967 (July), 8-9.

See also Robert L. Crain in American Journal of Sociology, 1967, 73, 354-356.

For other writings on control over own destiny and other motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

See also J.S. Coleman and others. Relation of school factors to achievement. In D.A. Erickson (Ed.), Educational organization and adminstration. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1977; pp. 26-54.

137. Cooke, Robert A. and Robert J. Coughlan. Developing collective decision-making and problem-solving structures in schools. Group and Organizational Studies, 1979, 4(1), 71-92. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

This paper describes an organization development program for educational systems and reviews an experiment conducted to assess its impact on elementary schools and their teaching staffs. The OD program was designed to establish collective decision-making structures in schools and to initiate survey feedback and group problem-solving processes at the faculty level. The program was implemented in seven randomly selected schools and evaluated within the framework of a four-group experimental design. Evaluation results indicated that the program was generally successful in establishing collective structures and increasing the perceived adequacy of collective decision processes in the experimental schools. Additionally, the program led to a variety of faculty-initiated changes and improved teachers' attitudes toward important aspects of their work environment. (authors' abstract)

See also Duncan, Mohrman, Mohrman, Cooke, and Zaltman (1977) and Mohrman, Cooke, and Mohrman (1978).

138. Cooperative Project for Educational Development (COPED). Vol. I: Research outcomes. (Final report of Project No. 8-0069 to the U.S. Office of Education under Grant No. OEG-3-8-080069-0043(101)). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1970. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

COPED did not produce any studies of impact, because funding was terminated during the first year of active intervention. The data collected, however, supported the position that school and district innovativeness was enhanced by leadership-sharing and personal support from the principal, the adequacy of problem solving in faculty meetings, the perception of rewards available for creativity, the degree of trust among colleagues, and the amount of initiation by teachers of innovative proposals.

For other reports from COPED or from projects using COPED's questionnaires, see Hilfiker (1970), Luke and Mial (1972), Manno (1969), Schmuck and Runkel (1970), Thomas Stephens (1974), and Goodwin Watson (1967).

139. Corprew, James C. and Herbert J. Davis. An organizational development (OD) effort to improve instruction at a university, with suggestions for successful implementation. Educational Technology, 1975, 15(9), 41-44. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

This article presents an overview of the successful implementation of an organizational development (OD) effort at a medium-size state supported institution. The particular OD approach utilized in this project undertaking was that of Lawrence and Lorsch, with its four phases of research-diagnosis, action planning, implementation, and evaluation. Applications of Nominal Grouping and Brainstorming are also addressed. The authors propose that this OD effort was unique since: (1) it was the first institutionwide endeavor in higher education stressing solely improvement of instruction which (2) utilized extensively and in tandem both Nominal Grouping and Brainstorming as interventions for fostering change. Suggestions for successful implementation are offered. (author's abstract)

140. Corwin, Ronald G. Militant professionalism: A study of organizational conflict in high schools. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1970. [S, OrF]

Compared with the tranquil schools, we find that the discordant schools have younger faculties which have been in the system for a shorter period of time; they have more professional faculties. . . . They are more gregarious, but they talk less frequently with the principal and are more negative toward the principal. They have higher job satisfaction but lower career satisfaction.

The discordant schools are larger, more bureaucratic, more heterogeneous, and have higher rates of staff turnover and expansion, but they permit teachers to assume more routine decision-making authority, are less complex, rely less on rules, and are less closely supervised; they also have a lower total tax base. They place more emphasis on character training and critical thinking and put comparatively less emphasis on subject matter and vocational training. They also have a higher proportion of students attending college (pp. 278-279).

141. Corwin, Ronald G. Reform and organizatoinal survival: The teacher corps as an instrument of educational change. New York: Wiley, 1973. [SN, Int, OrF, Env]

Reports the findings of a longitudinal study of the Teacher Corps. . . . The aim of the study was to learn about the general processes of organizational change and, in particular, how professional services can be improved to help the poor. Written for social scientists, scholars, educators, policy makers, and other informed citizens to give a better understanding of this complex program. -- Publisher's blurb

142. Cottle, Thomas J. Strategy for change. Saturday Review, September 1970, pp. 70-71, 79-82. [S, Int, OrF]

The author discusses a training program developed for Bristol Township schools, which was based on three assumptions about the nature of change and the ways in which resistance to change can be overcome. First, the training program must be strongly and consistently supported by the district's educational leaders--the superintendent and his top staff. Second, the program must include the entire school community. The superintendent, his staff, and the entire teaching force must participate; ideally the program should include important lay members of the community as well. Third, training must be focused on personal growth for organizational adaptation to change, rather than on personal growth alone. -- Maguire, Temkin, and Cummings (1971).

143. Coursen, David. Women and minorities in administration. School Leadership Digest, No. 11, 1975. Order No. ED 102 640 from National Association of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, VA 22209. [S, Lea]

A 31-page review of recent research.

144. Coursen, David. Administrative implications of mainstreaming. School Leadership Digest, No. 20, 1976. Order No. ED 120 899 from National Assocation of Elementary School Principals, P.O. Box 9114, Arlington, VA 22209. [S, Cl, OrF]

A 32-page review of recent research.

145. Coursen, David. Conflicting moralities in education. School Management Digest, No. 1, 1977. Order No. ED 137 893 from the Association of California School Adminstrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. [S, Cl, Ef, Env]

A 33-page review of recent research.

146. Coursen, David. Communications in the open organization. School Management Digest, No. 21, 1980. Order from the Assocation of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. [S, OrF]

A 38-page review of recent research.

147. Cowen, Emory L. Help is where you find it: Four informal helping groups. American Psychologist, 1982, 37(4), 385-395. [N, Int, OrF]

This article summarizes and compares findings from a series of studies of informal, interpersonal help given by four groups: hairdressers, divorce laywers, industrial supervisors, and bartenders. Moderate to serious personal problems were raised with all groups, more with hairdressers and divorce lawyers than with supervisors or bartenders. Although those problems in the aggregate were similar to those brought to mental health professionals, somewhat different problems came up with different groups. Respondents in all groups used a variety of handling strategies--some like, others unlike, those used by mental health professionals. The special ecologies of the several situations related both to the number of personal problems raised and to how they were handled. Most respondents felt good about providing interpersonal help and believed that they did so moderately well. Only a small fraction of people's psychological problems reach the formal mental health establishment. For many reasons informal sources of help are important in society's de facto help-seeking framework and are likely to remain so. Challenges and opportunities that this reality poses for mental health are considered. (author's abstract)

148. Craft, James A. and Jacob G. Birnberg. Human resource accounting: Perspectives and prospects. Industrial Relations, 1976, 15(1), 2-12. [N, OrF]

The HRA movement has probably attempted to go too far too quickly, given the available methodologies and lack of widespread acceptance within management and the accounting profession. HRA enthusiasts have tried to get management to do four things at once: (1) pay more attention to personnel variables; (2) place dollar values on human resources and implement human asset depreciation; (3) break with the accountant's traditional reliance on historical cost data (except for outlay cost methods); (4) develop internal and external reporting procedures using HRA data. Any of these objectives alone would be difficult to achieve, but the attainment of all simultaneously is virtually impossible. The result is that in many cases managers who might be sympathetic to one or more aspects of HRA become skeptical of its value because they can't accept all aspects. . . .

Our review of the current HRA experience convinces us that this new form of accounting will obtain greatest acceptance as an aid in personnel management operations analysis (e.g., turnover cost analysis, training cost analysis, costing out selection procedures, and the like) and in evaluating managerial performance, especially in service-oriented industries. On the other hand, we feel it unlikely that HRA will be recongized by the accounting profession as having legitimate value in external accounting reporting (pp. 11-12).

149. Crockenberg, Susan and Brenda Bryant. Socialization: The "implicit curriculum" of learning environments. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1978, 12(1), 69-78. [S, Cl, Ef, Mot]

The research program described herein elaborates the dimensions and effects on elementary-aged children of cooperative, competitive, and individualized learning environments. The specific focus of inquiry became the peer relationships and personal satisfactions and dissatisfactions that typify children who experience such environments. In addition, the research interest was developmental. While the research program considered how children behave in various specified learning environments, it looked also at children's behavior subsequent to those learning situations. Effects that generalized beyond the immediate situation were presumed to have the greatest significance for subsequent development (p. 69).

150. Croft, John C. Organizational development for Thornlea: A communication package and some results. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1970, 6, 93-106. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

. . . most organizations have a structure which was designed to solve problems which no longer exist. [The author] views organizational development as . . . developing the capabilities of an organization [so] that it can attain and sustain an optimum level of performance.

The author . . . stresses that people in education need to pay a little less attention to setting utopian goals and designing ways to evaluate whether the goals are being obtained; rather, they should deal more creatively with what is available and build the strong relationships and organizational health necessary to creating a strong enough internal state or stamina for [the] organization to flourish and grow. -- Maguire, Temkin, and Cummings (1971).

151. Cronbach, Lee J. and associates. Toward reform of program evaluation. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1980. [SN, Ev]

Until recently, program evaluation was widely regarded as a service to central decision makers who needed accurate measurements of the impact of particular programs. Today, however, there is a growing recognition that power is shared in a pluralistic society and that the aim of evaluation should be to help everyone understand what programs accomplish and why they fall short of their objectives. In keeping with that recognition, this new book takes a fresh and provocative look at the purposes, methods, and uses of evaluation. The authors carefully examine the functions that evaluations can and should perform, propose new standards for judging the successes of particular evaluation efforts, and outline new institutional arrangements whereby society can realize greater benefit from the evaluation process.

The recommendations presented here emerged from several years of seminar discussion at Stanford University. During these seminars, evaluators from a variety of disciplines and backgrounds described their professional experiences and reviewed a broad selection of writings on evaluation--writings originating from political science and organization theory, from statistics and experimental design, and from the history of education, child care, mass communication, and other social interventions. All conclusions were hammered out by the team as a whole and endorsed by the authors jointly, providing a unity and depth of treatment in this book seldom encountered in the many symposium volumes on evaluation.

Evaluation itself is described as a political institution--but the evaluator is first and foremost an educator, one who assists members of a policy-shaping community in recognizing their own interests, weighing the consequences of alternative approaches, and discovering new opportunities for action. The authors spell out the implications of this perspective for each stage of the evaluation process--the planning, analysis, and reporting of evaluative studies. They conclude by describing the total evaluation enterprise as it is and as it might be, suggesting alternative arrangements for contracting and sponsorship, for training evaluators, for critizing evaluations, and for interpreting research. -- Publisher's blurb.

152. Cronbach, Lee J. Designing evaluations of educational and social programs. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981. [SN, Ev]

This book offers expert advice on designing flexible, relevant program evaluations that will lead to educational and social improvements.

Cronbach critically examines numerous actual program evaluations, analyzing the problems encountered, the decisions made, the assessment procedures used, and the results achieved. Using examples from these evaluations, he recommends ways of designing each phase of the evaluation--identifying questions, setting priorities, choosing methodologies and controls, adapting designs to unexpected events and data, moving from data to conclusions, and reporting findings to get attention and results. He points out appropriate uses and potential misuses of a broad range of techniques; highlights design features that lead to useful generalizable findings; and shows how to combine formal, scientific techniques with naturalistic, exploratory methods to suit the requirements of the program under investigation. All those who conduct or commission program evaluations will find this book of value. -- Publisher's blurb.

153. Culbert, Samuel A. The organization trap and how to get out of it. New York: Basic Books, 1974. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

Culbert discusses his beliefs that we have created an organizational world in which the system defines the man rather than vice versa. His method for correcting this malfunction includes a step-by-step, consciousness-raising strategy that shows the individual how to exert greater control over organization life and how to prevent it from exploiting his needs for acceptance and affirmation.

. . . the discussion exposes the undermining and cyclical effects of an organizational life out of control. A guide to the breakdown of barriers and the discovery of creative potential among the employees follows in the path of the productive strategy -- Publisher's blurb

Although the book is not directly about schools, the traps exist there too, and the advice applies to those of us in education.

For other writings on control of own fate and other motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

154. Culbert, Samuel A. and John J. McDonough. The invisible war: Pursuing self-interests at work. New York: Wiley, 1980. [N, OrF, Mot]

Analysis of the subjective side of organizational life. How people must position themselves to do their work effectively and get what they produce valued.

155. Culver, Carmen M. and F.J. Hoban (Eds.) The power to change: Issues for the innovative educator. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1973. [S, Int, OrF, Env, Lea, Bib]

. . . clear, concise and highly readable and should interest both educators and concerned lay readers.

This well-edited collection focuses on the school as a "theatre for change." The writers, IDEA staff members, assert that the individual principal is the key to educational change, and that teachers must shed their passive role for a responsibilities-sharing one. The 13 papers cover such areas as techniques for change, effects of teacher militancy, and accountabilty; and the underlying philosophy suggests a healthy return to concern with educational leadership, curriculum consultants, human relations, and teacher morale. -- Library Journal.

Contains extensive bibliography.

For other reports from IDA, see Bentzen and associates (1974), Goodlad (1975, 1977), Seeman and Seeman (1976), Tye and Novotney (1975), and Williams, Wall, Martin, and Berchin (1974).

156. Cummings, Larry L. Emergence of the instrumental organization. In P.S. Goodman, J.M. Pennings, and associates. New perspectives on organizational effectiveness. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1977; Chapter 3. [N, OrF, Mot]

One possibly fruitful way to conceive of an organization and the processes that define it is as an instrument or an arena within which participants can engage in behavior they perceive as instrumental to their goals. From this perspective, an effective organization is one in which the greatest percentage of participants perceive themselves as free to use the organization and its subsystems as instruments for their own ends (pp. 59-60).

157. Cummings, Thomas G., Edmond S. Molloy, and Roy Glen. A methodological critique of fifty-eight selected work experiments. Human Relations, 1977, 30(8), 675-708. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

This paper evaluates the internal and external validity of 58 work experiements--e.g., job enrichment, participative management, and autonomous group studies. The experiments are classified according to their independent and dependent variables; then each study's research design is evaluated in terms of various threats to internal and external validity. The results show that the attitudinal and performance improvements reported in the experiments are questionable but not altogether implausible. The findings of the studies appear to be generalizable to a wide range of populations and settings. Several suggestions for the improvement of research in this field are presented in light of the results of this critique. (authors' abstract)

158. Cunningham, William G. Systematic planning for educational change. Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield, 1982. [S, Int, OrF, Env, OD]

This text includes chapters on theory, various contexts, MBO, budgeting, participation in planning, group involvement, coordination, decision making, organizational development, and using computers.

159. Dachler, H. Peter and Bernhard Wilpert. Conceptual dimensions and boundaries of participation in organizations: A critical evaluation. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1978, 23(1), 1-39. [N, OrF, Env]

This paper outlines a broad conceptual framework for participation in organizations, which provides an overview of four defining dimensions of participatory social arrangements in organizations and their often complex interdependencies. The dimensions of participation discussed in this paper include the social theories underlying participatory social systems and the values and goals each of them implies for participation, the major properties of participatory systems, the outcomes of participation in organizations, and the contextual characteristics of participatory systems which limit or enhance their potential. The view of participation presented in this paper is of a multidimensional, dynamic social phenomenon, the study of which transcends questions unique to any given discipline paradigm and which requires an integration of micro and macro questions. The implications of this conceptualization for their building, research, and methodology are briefly discussed. (authors' abstract)

Although participation in decision making is often thought of as a dichotomy between involvement or noninvolvement of people in making decisions that affect them, one can, in fact, think of participation as a continuum reflecting the different access that organization members have to the actual making of a decision, or the amount of influence they can exert toward a given decision outcome. . . (p. 14).

For example, one could conceive of the following behaviors along such a continuum . . . (1) No (advance) information is given to employees about a decision to be taken. (2) Employees are informed in advance of the decision to be made. (3) Employees can give their opinion about the decision to be made. (4) Employees' opinions are taken into account in the decision process. (5) Employees have a veto, either negatively by blocking a decision that has been made, or positively by having to concur in advance. (6) The decision is completely in the hands of organization members, with no distinction between managers and subordinates (p. 14).

160. Daft, Richard L. and Selwyn W. Becker. The innovative organization: Innovation adoption in school organizations. New York: Elsevier, 1978. [S, Int, OrF]

Innovation action takes place in different areas within the organization. Different types of innovations follow different routes to adoption. Organizational and environmental variables may predict one type of innovation but not another. The innovation processes seem to be rational for the organization in the sense that they yield innovations in line with organizational goals, but these processes are not rational in the classical sense of a felt problem followed by search and then the careful consideration of several alternatives. . . .

In reviewing our findings, we are struck by the compatibility between them and two depictions of organizational processes: Cohen, March, and Olsen's garbage can model of organizational decision making, and Weick's view of educational organizations as loosely coupled systems (p. 165).

The entire innovation process hinges upon organization participants. Participants have to make the connection between ideas, problems, and innovation choices. Ideas have to be proposed, attached to problems, and choices made. . . .

The first stage is the decision by a participant to propose an idea, or to connect an idea to a problem, and ask for approval. Out in the organization, away from traditional power centers and formal decision makers, an organization participant decides to act. This initial decision creates an expectation that the formal decision system will make a choice for or against innovation. Both the initial decision to create a choice opportunity and the later formal choice have to be made in order for innovation to proceed. At this point in our thinking, we suspect that the initial decision, made without fanfare in the hinterland of the organization, is the more important decision. . . (p. 169).

Teachers had almost exclusive rights to the educational domain in districts where teachers were highly educated (mostly master's degree holders). Well over 90 percent of educational innovations were initiated by teachers in these districts. As average teacher education dropped, administrators were more likely to be involved with innovations in the educational domain. A similar situation existed for administrative innovations. When the teachers had lower average education, administrators had exclusive rights over the administrative innovations. But as average teacher education increased, the relative influence of administrators over their own domain decreased, and teachers became involved to some extent in the initiation of administrative innovations (p. 172).

Influences other than professionalism, such as environmental variables and organizational structure, are also important to the explanation of innovation in the garbage can framework, because these variables influence the flow of the problem, idea, and decision expectation streams (p. 173).

Yet creativity does not seem to us a very useful concept for explaining organizational innovation. The role of champion has little to do with creativity. Bradshaw found that the idea champion borrows the idea for a new department elsewhere. The idea champion is not necessarily even an opinion leader. His or her distinguishing characteristic is to connect the idea to a perceived need and then to manage the idea to the point of its gaining acceptance. The champion has to be persistent, persuasive, and willing to push on others to accept the innovation.

Thus, an organizational climate and structure that provides freedom and participation at the lower organizational levels very likely leads to increased innovation because this type of organization fosters the championship of ideas, not because this type of organization increases the amount of creativity or the number of inventions within the organization (p. 180). (Reprinted by permission of the publisher from R.L. Daft and S.W. Becker. The innovative organization, copyright 1978 by Elsevier Science Publishing Co., Inc.)

For another discussion of the idea champion, see Galbraith (1982).

161. Das, Hari. Relevance of current organization development values and assumptions to scarcity situations. Group and Organizational Studies, 1981, 6(4), 402-409.

See Peggy Morrison (1981) for annotation.

162. Davies, Don. Citizen participation in education: Annotated bibliography. New Haven, Connecticut: Institute for Responsive Education (70 Sachem Street), 1974. [S, Bib]

An annotated bibliography. The focus in on citizen participation in relation to elementary and secondary schools, ruling out, for the most part, both the postsecondary and preschool levels. The emphasis is on participation in decision making, policy development, and school governance, rather than on individual participation in schools as volunteers, tutors, teacher aides, or the parent's role as a teacher of his or her own children in the home. The focus is on the public school and school system rather than on private and parochial schools, although some attention is given to alternative schools outside the public system and to proposals for parent-choice such as voucher and family payment plans. (from the introduction)

163. Davies, Don, Miriam Clasby, and Brian Powers. The plight of citizens. Compact, Autumn 1977, 17-21. [S, Env]

Participation without power is demoralizing for an informed constituency, leading to cynicism and public mistrust of the education establishment. . . . Despite our commitment to involving the public in all aspects of school policy making, [that] must not be undertaken unless it includes a commitment to begin sharing power with citizens (p. 21).

This article points out the near-futility in and purposelessness of trying to involve the public in participatory and advisory activities related to school policy. Part of the reason seems to be that while various groups' participation is actively sought, actual decision-making power remains in the hands of professionals. More citizens are involved in school affairs than ever before, yet they appear to have less policy-making impact than before the advent of government mandated councils. -- Gary D. Schmidt

164. Davis, Louis E. Evolving alternative organization designs: Their sociotechnical bases. Human Relations, 1977, 30(3), 261-273. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

The implicit assumptions underlying dominant or classic organization designs and the present forces in society are examined as a background for rise of alternative organization designs. Some fourteen attributes commonly shared by the new designs are presented. These include systemic structure and roles, organizations as open systems, design by joint optimization, organizational uniqueness, stated organizational values or philosophy, quality of working life as an essential objective, comprehensive roles, self-maintaining social units, flat structure, participation, minimal status differences, make large small, iterative evolutionary development, and minimal critical specifications. Some attributes are a response to needs for institutional survival, others for long-term economic survival, and still others for enhanced institutional effectiveness. A postscript compares evolving alternative organization designs with proposals of proponents of intermediate technology. (author's abstract)

165. Davis, Louis E. and Albert B. Cherns (Eds.) The quality of working life. Volume 1: Problems, prospects, and the state of the art. New York: Free Press, 1975. [N, Ev, Int, OrF, Mot]

Chapters are grouped into seven sections: enhancing the quality of working life (QWL), defining and measuring QWL, changing QWL, technology and QWL, context of change, context of bargaining, and QWL as a central issue in industrial relations.

See also the review by W.F. Whyte in American Journal of Sociology, 1978, 83(4), 1063-1065.

166. Davis, Sheldon A. An organic problem-solving method of organizational change. In W.G. Bennis, K.D. Benne, and R. Chin (Eds.), The planning of change. (2nd ed.) New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1969; pp. 357-370. [N, Int, OrF]

The culture of an organization as well as the individuals in an organization must change. This means that attention must be given to the value system, the social structure and the technical system of an organization. Central to this effort are: (1) the principles of confrontation and (2) laboratory training viewed as a means not an end so that most of the effort is exerted in on-the-job situations after the people have attended labs and not in the labs themselves. This requires a non-mechanical, organic approach: . . . (1) ability to view the culture analytically without becoming alienated from it; (2) optimism regarding chances for change . . . ; (3) a systems approach . . . ; (4) use of consultants for third party facilitation; (5) confrontation and feedback; (6) empathy "becoming the other"; (7) dealing with problems here and now; (8) multiplier planning which means choosing alternatives with the greatest potential for change; (9) fanning out so that someone who does something leads to others doing something; (10) alternate acting and critiquing . . . ; (11) testing available choices. . . . -- NIMH (1971).

167. Davis, Stanley M. Transforming organizations: The key to strategy is context. Organizational Dynamics, 1982, 10(3), 64-80. [N, Int, OrF, Env]

Davis . . . contents that one must think and plan organizational change in terms of context, not content. An operating budget or a two-year plan, for example, mainly provides content within a given and unquestioned context.

Most managers manage the content. But this can only improve the efficiency of the organization -- never make it more effective. Thus an organization's leadership will have implemented its strategic plan if and when they manage the context. Organization, including its culture and structure, lags behind strategy. This penonmenon is behind Davis's contention that all organizations are created for business that either no longer exists or is in the process of going out of existence. To avoid this trap, one has to manage from a place in time that assumes one is already there; the present is the past of the future. -- abstract by the editors of Organizational Dynamics.

168. Davis, Stanley M. and Paul R. Lawrence. Matrix. Reading, MA: Addison Wesley, 1977. [N, OrF]

In this book, the authors invite us to consider a new alternative to what they call the "1-boss" command structure that evolved from the industrial revolution and which "is so close to being a universal pattern that managers have been unaware until recently that any choice existed in this matter." The matrix system they describe is one which grew out of the unique management problems of the American space effort of the 1960s. It comes to us with a strong caveat from the authors:

> If you do not really need it, leave it alone. There are easier ways to manage organizations. . . (p. vi).

Freedom is translated as the specialized interests of different parts of an organization; the optimal goal of decentralization. Order is represented as the regulation and integration of all elements in harmonious and common action; the optimal goal of centralization. The problem with the centralization-decentralization debate, however, was that the more you realized the benefits of the one, the less you got the benefits of the other. The dilemma of organization was the dilemma of an either-or world, of being either a boss or a subordinate. The promise of a release form the dilemma, of the flexibility of both centralization and decentralization, specialization and integration. The price, however, is real--it is greater management and organizational complexity. . . (p. xi).

See also English (1977).

169. Davis, Tim R.V. OD in the public sector: Intervening in ambiguous performance environments. Group and Organization Studies, 1979, 4(3), 352-363. [N, Int, OrF, Env, OD]

Identifies external and internal variables that affect public-sector organizations. Contextual frameworks are developed as orienting devices for organization development intervention in divisions of state welfare systems. Describes tactics of change in ambiguous performance settings and focuses on internal influence variables expected to affect change attempts in public-sector organizations. (Author). (ERIC data base)

170. Davison, Ronald G. and Paul D. Longhofer. Organizational development training: A case study. Educational Considerations, 1977, 5(1), 8-13. [S, Int, OrF, Env, OD]

School managers faced with the task of implementing and maintaining organizational changes may wish to consider an in-school management structure designed to increase each faculty member's stake in the change process. This case study describes a junior high school of 2,000 white working-class, often racist youngsters and the control problems presented by integration via busing. The problem confronted was how to maintain discipline and control in order to get back to the business of education. The solution chosen was a training and change model known as Organization Development Training. . . . a 10-day workshop was designed [by] a university-based training director [and] a newly designated principal. Essentially participative management, the OD process attempted to involve the faculty heavily in the management process via faculty generation of critical issues, establishment of faculty action priorities, and the emergence of a permanent decision-making structure composed of elected faculty representatives, the principal, and a parent representative. While no evaluative results are reported, several of the lessons of implementation are shared, and some tentative conclusions are proferred. . . . (Robson in Educational Administration Abstracts)

171. Daw, Robert W. and N.L. Gage. Effect of feedback from teachers to principals. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1967, 58(3), 181-188. [S, Cl, Int]

Each member of an experimental group of 151 elementary school principals was given feedback concerning his teachers' ratings of their actual and ideal principals on 12 behaviors. These principals were subsequently found to differ significantly, in the direction of teachers' preferences, from 143 principals in a control group. Initial differences in ratings were controlled by analysis of covariance. . . . Two intervals between feedback and second ratings, two forms of feedback, the principal's age and experience, and sequence and direction of the rating-scale items were found to be [not] related to the effect of the feedback. The results suggest that feedback of this kind improves the behavior of elementary school principals. (author's abstract)

For similar studies, see Burns (1977), Gage, Runkel, and Chatterjee (1963), Hovenier (1966), Margaret Nelson (1972), Schmuck (1973), and Tuckman, McCall, and Human (1969).

172. Deal, Terrence E. An organizational explanation of alternative school failures. R&D Memorandum No. 133 from Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, Stanford, CA. A revision appears in J.V. Baldridge and T.E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1975; pp. 482-499. [S, Int, OrF]

We contend that alternative education was denied the opportunity to test its basic ideas because schools organized in such a fashion could not cope with the consequences of a revised authority struture. [The educational idealists did not] have the understanding, the skills, or the organizational sense to cope with the problems they encountered without returning to the system they wanted to revise (p. 498 of Baldridge and Deal's book).

173. Deal, Terrence E. and Robert R. Nolan (Eds.) Alternative schools: Ideologies, realities, guidelines. Chicago: Nelson-Hall, 1978. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Env]

This book is a rich compilation of experiences with out-of-the-ordinary schools, but it is more than that. For those of us unhappy with what most schools are doing to children, the book maps several directions we can go in search of happier lives for children, teachers, and ourselves. The book tells us the many ways we can tell an alternative school from a traditional school, and it tells us in good detail what we can do to help an alternative school make a go of it.

It is high time someone painted for us this heartening picture of the serious work many people are putting in to find better ways of running a school. Deal and Nolan have painted the picture clearly. It is a complex picture, of course, but the authors have selected chapters that considerably simplify the complexity without glossing it over. This book will be welcomed by school administrators and teachers, by professors of education, by parents, and even by governmental agencies looking for productive places to put money. -- from a pre-publication review by P.J. Runkel.

174. Deal, Terrence E. and Samuel C. Nutt. Promoting, guiding, and surviving change in school districts. Cambridge, MA: Abt Associates, 1979. [S, Int, OrF]

Some topics: Pitfalls of change, Avenues for successful change, The Experimental Schools Program, Strategies for conflict resolution, The importance of images, Educational organizations as federations of zones, Rules for planning and implementing change.

175. DeCecco, John P. and Arlene K. Richards. Growing pains: Uses of school conflict. New York: Aberdeen, 1974. [S, OrF]

This is a 'how-to' book about conflict. It tells [educators and students] how to use conflict--not how to avoid or suppress it. It shows . . . how . . . students and school adults [might] resolve their [differences]. Over 8,500 students and school adults have lent their voices to this book. Their raw, unedited words describe what is happening--how they perceive and react to the chaos, the breakdown of interpersonal relations and of present-day high school governance. -- Publisher's blurb

176. DeCharms, Richard. Enhancing motivation: Change in the classroom. New York: Irvington (distributed by Halstead Press), 1976. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, Mot]

More than 1,200 young people were involved, and almost 40 teachers performed various roles to help in the development of student motivation . . . . Enhancing Motivation is a superb example of careful research done within the dynamic, elusive reality of an inner city public school.

. . . Teachers in the experimental group helped devise and then use in their own classrooms activities and materials designed to foster the development of self-confidence, internal goal setting, personal responsibility, and internal control of behavior, among other things. These activities and materials were designed to help students become causal agents, to be the origin of their own behavior. The basic purpose of the study, in fact, was to develop commitment and competence (i.e., to be an origin) rather than aimlessness and powerlessness (i.e., to be a pawn.)

The data reported suggest that the concepts are valid and the instructional activities and materials are helpful. "It works," in other words. Professor deCharms' book should be particularly useful for practicing teachers and administrators in the public schools. -- J.R. Frymier, Journal of Educational Research (a publication of the Helen Dwight Reid Educational Foundation), 1977, 70(4), 227-228.

See also R. DeCharms. Personal causation training in the schools. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 1968, 2(2), 95-113.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for more annotation. For more about DeCharms, see the annotation to McClelland (1978).

For more writings on motives, see the entries for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

177. Deci, Edward L. Work -- who does not like it and why. Psychology Today, 1972, 6(3), pp. 57, 58, 92. [SN, OrF, Mot]

It is clear to me that if we want individuals to enjoy what they do, to derive joy and satisfaction from their work as well as their play, we must do two things. We must create more activities that are inherently interesting and gratifying; and we must not use extrinsic rewards in a way that will lower the interest level of those activities that are intrinsically motivated. We should learn to give verbal support to our friends, colleagues and children, and not rely on tendencies to reward or threaten. External controls may get others to act the way we want them to, but such controls absolve them to the feeling of responsibility for those acts. Controlling others seems to insure that others will not control themselves (p. 92).

For other writings on motive satisfaction, see the entries for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

178. Delbecq, Andre L., A.H. Van de Ven, and David H. Gustafson. Group techniques for program planning. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, 1975. [N, OrF, OD]

A comprehensive guide to two techniques which approach problem solving in highly structured ways, allowing very little group interaction. The Nominal Group Technique (NGT) has this format: (1) Silent generation of ideas in writing. (2) Round-robin feedback from group members to record each idea in a terse phrase on a flip chart. (3) Discussion of each recorded idea for clarification and evaluation. (4) Individual voting on priority ideas with the group decision being mathematically derived through rank-ordering or rating (p. 8).

The NGT has these objectives: (1) To assure different processes for each phase of creativity. (2) To balance participation among members. (3) To incorporate mathematical voting techniques in the aggregation of group judgment (p. 9).

The Delphi process uses various formats to achieve these objectives: (1) To determine or develop a range of possible program alternatives. (2) To explore or expose underlying assumptions or information leading to different judgments. (3) To seek out information that may generate a consensus on the part of the respondent group. (4) To correlate informed judgments on a topic spanning a wide range of disciplines. (5) To educate the respondent group as to the diverse and interrelated aspects of the topic (pp. 10 and 11).

. . . a simplified Delphi [can be used] wherein only two iterations of questionnaires and feedback are used. First, the staff team in collaboration with decision makers develops an initial questionnaire and distributes it by mail to the respondent group. The respondents independently generate their ideas in answer to the first questionnaire and return it. The staff team then summarizes the responses to the first questionnaire and develops a feedback report along with the second set of questionnaires for the respondent group. Having received the feedback report, the respondents independently evaluate earlier responses. Respondents are asked to vote independently on priority ideas included in the second questionnaire and mail their responses back to the staff team. The staff team then develops a final summary and feedback report to the respondent group and decision makers (p. 11).

179. De Meuse, Kenneth P. and S. Jay Liebowitz. An empirical analysis of team-building research. Group and Organization Studies, 1981, 6(3), 357-378. [SN, Tea, OD]

Thirty-six published studies of an organization development strategy, team building, were reviewed with a focus on (1) research designs, (2) sample sizes, (3) dependent variables, and (4) the length of time the intervention was investigated. Team building appears to be an intervention with great potential for improving employee attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors as well as organizational effectiveness. However, a lack of rigor in the research methods used to evaluate it precludes any firm conclusions about which improvements were functions of team building and which were due to uncontrolled variables. Experimental rigor is unlikely to increase because of problems inherent in organization development research. Future researchers should coordinate their efforts to reach a better understanding of the effectiveness of team building. (authors' abstract)

180. Derr, C. Brooklyn. Organization development in one large urban school system. Education and Urban Society, 1970, 2, 403-419. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

A report of difficulties in carrying out organizational development in the Boston school district.

181. Derr, C. Brooklyn. Conflict resolution in organizations: Views from the field of educational administration. Public Administration Review, 1972, 32(5), 495-501. [S, Int, OrF]

This article considers organizational conflicts from the administrator's point of view. It outlines some methods that an administrator can use to develop a strategy for conflict resolution. The article first identifies the most common kinds of organizational conflict. Second, it underscores the importance of differentiating between conflicts (e.g., between those that foster creative tension and those that are potentially destructive to the organization), and it presents a model for determining the degree to which they are important and should be resolved.

Finally, the article presents some specific proposals for resolving organizational conflicts and summarizes them by presenting the "Organizational Conflict Resolution Grid." (paraphrased from author's abstract)

See also C. Brooklyn Derr. Surfacing and managing organizational power. OD Practitioner, 1972, 4(2), 1-4.

182. Derr, C. Brooklyn. Managing organizational conflict: When to use collaboration, bargaining, and power. Working paper from the Human Systems Development Study Center, University of California at Los Angeles, 1974. ERIC order number ED 120 905. [SN, Int, OrF]

Title gives content. Well organized. Gives very useful detailed suggestions about diagnosis, advantages and disadvantages of the three strategies, and suggestions for making use of mixing the strategies.

183. Derr, C. Brooklyn. Major causes of organizational conflict: Diagnosis for action. Working paper from the Human Systems Development Center. University of California at Los Angeles, 1975. ERIC order number ED 120 906. [SN, Int, OrF]

Six major causes of organizational conflict (individual stress, role conflict, power struggles, differentiation, interdependence, and external pressures) are delineated; implications for managing these conflicts using collaboration, bargaining, and power plays are pointed out; which mode of conflict management works best for which cause is presented; and literature on organizational conflict management is referenced. (ERIC abstract)

184. Derr, C. Brooklyn. Managing organizational conflicts: A contingency theory with a collaborative bias. In M.M. Milstein (Ed.), Schools, conflict, and change. New York: Teachers College Press, 1980; pp. 259-278. [S, Int, OrF, Lea, OD]

The author proposes three strategies for dealing with conflict: collaboration, bargaining, and power. He says that collaboration is to be preferred "because it (1) promotes authentic interpersonal relations, (2) is a creative force for innovation and improvement, (3) enhances feedback and information flow, and (4) promotes openness, trust, risk taking, and integrity within an organization" (p. 261). Often, however, consultants fail to recognize the occasions when bargaining or the use of power is the more suitable strategy. The author discusses appropriate uses of the three strategies.

185. Derr, C. Brooklyn and Ada Demb. Entry and urban school systems: The context and culture of new markets. Education and Urban Society, 1974, 6(2), 135-152. [S, Int, OrF, Env, OD]

Describes processes of entry and ten factors that militate against the acceptance of OD by large city schools: Lack of supportive and compelling environmental forces; lack of adequate financing; lack of required interdependence; high value on autonomy; promotion from within; dearth of professional schools teaching OD; general skepticism or mistrust; management by crisis; extreme environmental vulnerability; and low accessibility of educational consultants.

See also C.B. Derr. Successful entry as a key to successful organization development in big city school systems. In W.W. Burke and H.A. Hornstein (Eds.), Social technology of organization development. Fairfax, VA: NTL Learning Resources Corp., 1972; pp. 41-52.

186. Deutsch, Karl W. and William G. Madow. A note on the appearance of wisdom in large bureaucratic organizations. Behavioral Science, 1961, 6, 72-78. [N, OfF]

How to compute the degree to which "wise decisions" by administrators appear by chance.

187. Deutsch, Morton and Harvey A. Hornstein (Eds.) Applying social psychology: Implications for research, practice, and training. New York: Wiley, 1975. [N, Int, OrF]

A distinguished forum of international authorities surveys the range of social intervention technology available to social psychologists. But more than just a simple cataloging of technology, the book articulates certain meta-theoretical assumptions that underlie different strategies of social intervention. For example, it examines assumptions about the personal agency, the nature of social systems, and levels and forms of interpersonal influences. -- Publisher's blurb.

188. DeVries, Davis L. and Robert E. Slavin. Teams-games-tournament: A final report on the research. Report No. 217. Baltimore: Center for Social Organization of Schools, 1976. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

Describes a series of ten experiments over a four-year period on the Teams-Games-Tournament instructional process, in which competition between teams enhances cooperation within teams. The research shows that the TGT method improved student achievement, attitudes, and peer group process in various subject-matters in elementary and secondary classrooms. Some resulting curriculum units are being published commercially.

189. DeVries, David L. and Robert E. Slavin. Teams-games-tournaments (TGT): Review of ten classroom experiments. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1978, 12(1), 28-38. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Env, Mot]

Although research on the TGT process is coming to a close, considerable development work on TGT materials is continuing. In mathematics, a set of over 200 TGT games (reflecting an exhaustive set of objectives for grades K-9) have been developed at the Center for Creative Leadership, Greensboro, North Carolina. An equally ambitious development of language arts, grades 3-9, is being completed at Johns Hopkins University. Johns Hopkins is also developing a complete set of TGT games for junior high school science. This project is funded by the National Science Foundation.

TGT is also being extended by several researchers to the process of "mainstreaming," that is, the policy of placing exceptional children into the traditional classroom. TGT may facilitate the integration of the exceptional child into the traditional classroom.

The real "new directions" for TGT and student team learning, in general, are reflected in the effects on students. It will be a new direction for the schooling process and for students when school becomes a place where students value academic pursuits and helping others. It will be a new direction when schools provide more than just a setting for the playing out of interracial tensions. If the classroom can foster greater and more positive interracial contact, then this too is a new direction for schooling. TGT may be one avenue for taking schooling in such new directions (pp. 37-38).

190. Dillon-Peterson, Patty (Ed.) Staff development and organization development. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1981. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Readings for practitioners. The editor develops the theme that "staff development and organization development are a gestalt of school improvement; both are necessary for maximum growth and effective change" (pp. 2-3). Chapter 3, by Albert E. Roark and Wallace E. Davis, Jr., describes the cadre of organizational specialists built in 1976 as part of the Participative Option Development Project in Boulder Valley, Colorado.

191. Doll, Russell C., Barbara J. Love, and Daniel U. Levine. Systems renewal in a big-city school district: The lessons of Louisville. Phi Delta Kappan, 1973, 54(8), 524-534. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The author's conclusions include: "The format for training and organizational development should be closely interwoven with the regular academic schedule. Plans for bringing about change falter when resources . . . are not provided in sufficient quantity. . . . Planning and evaluation procedures emphasizing formative evaluation, behavioral objectives, criterion-referenced testing . . . have not as yet been shown to have great utility . . . other than their obvious role in helping call attention to blatant problems in the schools" (p. 532). Contains a history of the change efforts and many useful comments.

192. Doreian, Patrick. On the "social law of effect" for task-oriented groups. Social Psychology Quarterly, 1979, 42(3), 222-231. [N, OrF]

The "social law of effect" proposed by Gray and Von Broembsen is critically assessed using a body of data generated in a set of Bales-type experiments. Data from 28 experimental groups provided very strong support for the social law of effect. The empirical values of the differentiation parameter varied greatly across the groups and examples of each differentiation type were found. The data point to the need to provide theoretical accounts and adequate models of social processes generating the data that support the social law of effect and to provide theoretical accounts of the variability of the differentiation parameter across small task-oriented groups. (author's abstract)

See also Gray and Von Broembsen (1976).

193. Doyle, Wayne J. A solution in search of a problem: Comprehensive change and the Jefferson experimental schools. In D. Mann (Ed.), Making change happen? New York: Teachers College Press, 1978; pp. 78-100. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Lin]

See Mann (1978) for annotation.

194. Doyle, Wayne, Janet Crist-Whitzel, Terrell L. Donicht, Donald F. Eixenberger, Robert B. Everhart, James M. McGeever, Douglas R. Pierce, and Robert M. Toepper. The birth, nurturance, and transformation of an educational reform. Portland, Oregon: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1976. [S, Int, OrF]

Numerous constraints existed at both the federal and local levels that inhibited an effective implementation of the planned program of reform in Jefferson. Still . . . it helped the district through a severe financial crunch and permitted individual schools and individual teachers to try some programs that were being tried elsewhere--as well as develop new curricula. The Experimental School Program did have intrinsic value for Jefferson in that it served as a lubricant for social and bureaucratic forces. . . . it can be said that Jefferson gained from the experience. Did the Jefferson Experimental School Program serve its stated function as expressed in the grand design? . . . it did not. Broad and sweeping change did not occur. . . . We have argued that it was neither feasible nor desirable in this setting (p. 303).

195. Dreeben, Robert. *On what is learned in school.* Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley, 1968. [S, Ef]

Puts most attention on independence, achievement, universalism, and specificity.

196. Drexler, John A., Jr. and Edward E. Lawler III. A union-management cooperative project to improve the quality of work life. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1977, 13(3), 373-387. [N, OrF]

This is one of the most complex union-management cooperative projects that the NQWC/ISR program has undertaken and one of the most complex in the literature. It represents an effort to change the quality of work life in one of the largest companies in the United States, and it involves a major international union representing over 20,000 of the employees who work for the company. Thus, the potential for learning from it about large system change and union-management cooperation are appreciable. So far the major lessons relate primarily to *how such projects can be started*. Several years from now we should be in a position to talk about issues of workplace change.

In most union-management situations there are some pressures that favor the kind of project that was started in National Processing. However, the forces against it usually are stronger. The role of NQWC in this project was to reduce the negative forces so that a Quality of Work project could take place. . . (p. 385).

197. Duffin, Richard, Arnold Falusi, and Philip Lawrence. Organization development, Part I: What's it all about? *School Progress* (Toronto), 1972, 41(9), 34-36; and Part II: Problems can only be solved from the inside. 41(10), 62-64. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The first article describes the OD unit of the York County Board of Education in Toronto, Canada, and lists the results of their work on financial planning and decision making. The second half of the story highlights some examples of OD efforts to help groups improve their efficiency. "... if the people on the firing line can see a meaningful disparity between where they are now and where they would like to be, and if they expect that they can deal with it, they will create their own method. The significant problems of an organization can only be solved from the inside" (p. 64).

198. Duke, Daniel Linden. Challenge to bureaucracy: The contemporary alternative school. *Journal of Educational Thought*, 1976, 10(1), 34-48. [S, OrF, Env]

As a result of a study of forty alternative schools spread across the eastern half of the United States, the author concluded that contemporary alternative schools represent as much a rejection of how conventional public schools are organized as an indictment of teaching methods and curricular offerings in these schools. While educational history records a variety of "alternatives," few of the precursors of recent alternative schools attempted to alter the administrative structure of schooling. Only in the past decade has the modern faith in the bureaucratic management of education been challenged. The author suggests that the "organizational" dimension of contemporary alternative schools might be more significant historically than their radical pedagogical practices or unusual learning opportunities. (author's abstract)

199. Duncan, Deirdre J. and J.W. Peach. The process of change in a high school. *Journal of Educational*, 1978, 16(1), 19-28. [S, Int, OrF]

Reports on a successful structural change in a Canadian high school that resulted in the transfer of control over the budget from the school division to the school staff. One of the greatest sources of resistance to change is the isolated nature of the teacher's tasks. (author's abstract)

200. Duncan, Robert B., Susan A. Mohrman, Allan M. Mohrman, Robert A. Cooke, and Gerald Zaltman. *An assessment of a structural task approach to organizational development in a school system.* (Final report to the National Institute of Education under Grant No. 6-003-0172) Evanston, IL: Northwestern University, 1977. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

A report of a project in a small city in the mid-west. The general goal of the project was to increase organizational capacity for problem solving. The district contained 17 elementary schools, three junior high schools, and two senior high schools. Ten of the schools volunteered for the OD training; the other 12 served as comparison schools. After an entry period of nine months, full of difficulties, active wrok in the project began in December of 1974.

Outside consultants conducted the training. Principals of the ten experimental schools received two days of training in December 1974. The superintendent and his staff received one day of training in January 1975. In February, pre-test questionnaires were administered, principals of the 12 comparison schools received one day of training, and program leaders received three days. The duties of the program leaders were to feed back the questionnaire results to faculty and to facilitate the later problem-solving sessions. Program leaders were elected by the faculty of each school. Also in February, program monitors received one day of training. Their duties were to provide process consultation to the program leaders and the problem-solving groups and to fill out various reporting forms for the project. Between February and March, a data-feedback session was held at each school, and problem solving began at the experimental schools. Teachers were given released time for three two-hour sessions during which the program leaders and program monitors facilitated the problem solving. No released time was provided for later problem-solving sessions; their occurrence was considered one of the outcomes of the project. Interviews for formative evaluation were conducted in June.

In October of 1975, five new program leaders and monitors were given two days of training. They were joined on the third day by the program leaders and monitors who were continuing from the previous year. In this second session of training, greater attention was given to group processes, handling of conflict, and clarification of program roles. Questionnaires were administered again in February of 1976, and data from them were handed back to faculties in March and April.

Results from the administration of questionnaires before and after the intervention showed numerous improvements. Teachers in the experimental schools perceived significantly more clear-cut procedures and mechanisms; they also perceived significantly increased variety in their jobs. Neither was true in the comparison schools. In the experimental schools but not in the comparison schools, teachers reported that they were significantly more capable in defining problems to be worked on, finding solutions, communicating the solutions to those affected, obtaining sanctions for solutions, finding acceptance for solutions, implementing the solutions, and merging the solutions into existing rules and procedures.

After the intervention, teachers in the experimental schools perceived that significantly more resources and more attention were being given to developing highly qualified staff, implementing an integrated instructional program, producing a supportive school environment, evaluating school programs to improve them, being responsive to the community, and communicating to the public. In the comparison schools, teachers perceived a significant increase only in implementing an integrated instructional program.

Teachers in the experimental schools, but not in the comparison schools, perceived their schools to be making significantly better progress toward implementing an integrated instructional program, evaluating school programs to improve them, being responsive to the community, and communicating to the public.

Teachers in the experimental schools, but not in the comparison schools, were significantly more satisfied with their work itself and with their work situation. Despite their active participation in the project, teachers in the experimental schools perceived, after the intervention, no increase in job overload.

Teachers in the experimental schools, but not in the comparison schools, perceived significantly less roll ambiguity. They felt significantly better about administrative practices, about procedures used to evaluate teachers, and about the quality of meetings.

Finally, teachers in the experimental schools chose and worked actively on 38 particular problems through which to improve their schools.

See also Cooke and Coughlan (1979) and Mohrman, Cooke, and Mohrman (1978).

See also S.A. Mohrman, A.M. Mohrman, R.A. Cooke, and R.B. Duncan. A survey-feedback and problem solving intervention in a school district.

In P. Mirvis and D. Berg (Eds.), Failures in organization development and change. Toronto: Wiley-Interscience, 1977.

201. Dyer, William G. Team building: Issues and alternatives. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1977. [N, Tea]

The book is written in a straightforward, practical style intended to be read and used by managers as well as consultants.

This volume provides a useful update and further definition of team building as a specific technology. The central theme is the obvious reality that we participate in teams in nearly every endeavor in life. Briefly but succinctly summarizing the research and practice of team building, the author presents a set of practical principles or biases that have evolved from the last fifteen to twenty years of team building. Clearly discriminating between T-groups and team building, the author builds a strong case for team building as a solid organizational investment.

The majority of the book is devoted to a clear step-by-step description of team building. . . . Basic programs, design options, building new teams, and revitalizing complacent teams are just a few of the topics discussed in this really useful book.

Essential reading for the newcomer to team building, this well-written volume is also important for the experienced team builder. A solid contribution. (Abstract by A.J. Reilly and T. Boone reprinted from Group and Organization Studies, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 515-516, copyright 1977 by University Associates, with permission of Sage Publications, Inc.)

202. Egan, Gerard and Michael Cowan. People in systems: A model for development in the human service professions and education. Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole, 1979. [SN, Int, Env]

We have written this book for anyone who would like to get a clearer picture of what it means to pursue his or her human development in the context of the social systems of life, as well as for individuals who are interested in careers involving the delivery of human services: psychology, medicine, nursing, education, social work, the ministry, and the like. Although it is intended primarily for students, this book is also addressed to professionals in the human services who may be familiar with many of the "pieces" of this model but not with the way we have integrated them (p. v).

Chapter 5, "The network of personal settings," contains a section on "The school as an example of a network of personal settings." Chapter 6, "The larger institutions of society," contains a section on "Developing a working knowledge of institutional systems and their effects." Chapter 8, "Models and skills for effective involvement within the social systems of our lives," contains a section on "A systematic approach to system change." Chapter 9, "How human systems can foster human development," contains a section on "Renewing systems as contexts for human development." Chapter 10, "Applications of the people-in-systems model," contains a section on "Systems intervention for human development: New directions for training."

203. Ehrlich, Paul R. Variety is the key to life. Technology Review (Massachusetts Institute of Technology), 1980, 82(5), 57-68. [N, Env]

In the world of biology, as in the world of finance, diversity is the only protection against the unknown, against a future risk. . . .

The diversity of nonhuman organisms and the genetic, cultural, and technological diversity of our own species are crucial to the future health, happiness, and perhaps even survival of humanity. Therefore, we must give careful consideration to diversity in human affairs. . . (p. 57).

. . . there clearly is a need for immediate attention to humanity's cultural diversity. . . . By some measures, the body of cultural information is growing exponentially. . . . In other ways, however, humanity's store of cultural variability is clearly eroding. A Western, industrial-scientific culture is overwhelming and replacing the wide variety of human cultures that existed a mere 50 years ago. . . .

On the basis of [our] meager knowledge . . . it seems wise to take a conservative position on the preservation of cultural resources for the same reasons that commend a conservative approach to the preservation of biological diversity. There is, for example, no guarantee that the secret for human beings living in peace with one another is not buried deep in the culture of, say, the gentle Tassady of the Philippines. Once everyone is Westernized, we will never know (pp. 64-65).

For an application to education, see Runkel (in Hopkins and Wideen, Eds., in preparation).

204. Eiseman, Jeffrey W. A third-party consultation model for resolving conflicts collaboratively. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1977, 13(3), 303-314. [SN, OrF, OD]

Not only is it possible to resolve deeply entrenched, recurring conflicts collaboratively, but I believe the more that such conflicts restrict productivity and satisfaction, the more the benefits of resolving them collaboratively justify the costs. Yet the process of resolving recurring conflicts collaboratively is both so complex and so different from conventional operating procedures that, typically, considerable assistance is needed from a skilled and neutral third party. Below, I shall explain what makes a conflict-handling procedure collaborative, describe two versions of a third-party consultation model, and comment on the circumstances which justify their use (p. 303).

205. Ely, Vivien King. Collaboration for planned organizational change in a state vocational education agency. Doctoral dissertation, North Carolina State University at Raleigh, 1975. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The theory and technology of organizational development for the solution of problems in a State Vocational Education Agency were tested. The study tested the effectiveness of OD training in improving the ability of State Vocational Education Agency (SVEA) members to change themselves, a condition called organizational adaptability.

One-year and two-year comparisons of group problem-solving capabilities in the target system showed a significant trend toward improvement in . . .: (a) group problem-solving procedures . . . , (b) maintaining access to the variety pool, (c) maintaining responsiveness, and (d) using assessment procedures for moving toward organizational goals. Process and longitudinal data on group process skills showed conscious use of face-to-face communication skills.

Group problem solving and goal specification procedures had become established routine at the second level of SVEA management two years after training and, in some cases, the procedures had reached third-level managers and vocational education teachers. (author's abstract)

206. Emrick, John with Susan M. Peterson and Rekha Agarwala-Rogers. Evaluation of the National Diffusion Network, Vol I: Findings and recommendations. Menlo Park, CA: Sanford Research Institute, 1977. [S, Int, Lin]

To be effective, consultants or linking agents should be prepared to work locally and long, involve local people in planning and monitoring, be ready for mutual adaptation with the client, be ready to adapt materials, provide in-service training, and include an explicit phase of institutionalization.

207. English, Fenwick W. Matrix management in education: Breaking down the school bureaucracy. Educational Technology, 1977, 17(1), 19-26. [S, OrF]

Proposes that school districts move from bureaucratic "downtown" management to a reorganization of non-routine functions using matrix management. . . . The first step . . . is to develop a set of organizational objectives which are measurable and valid as external yardsticks of effectiveness (p. 20).

All positions between the lowest level of routine functions and the superintendency are abolished. A Central Communication Center or something similar is created. It is from this Center that tasks are derived, ranked, and assigned to personnel groups for development (p. 21).

Thought-provoking ideas, though the author gives no example of a field test in a school district.

See also Davis and Lawrence (1977).

208. Epstein, Joyce L. Patterns of classroom participation, student attitudes, and achievements. In J.L. Epstein (Ed.), Quality of school life.

Lexington, MA: Lexington Books, 1981; pp. 81-115. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Env]

The main findings (pp. 106-107) were: (1) The organization of classroom decision making affects student reactions to school lie. (2) The effect of the formal organization of student participation on attitudes is mediated by the informal organization of teacher decision-making style and by student success in school. (3) The positive effects of participation on attitudes are continuous and cumulative. (4) Participation in decision making at home and family rules for behavior independently affect student attitudes toward school life, but family SES is not an important influence on attitudes. (5) There is no important causal relationship between achievement-test scores and attitudes toward school, or vice versa.

209. ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management. *Best of ERIC*. Eugene, OR: University of Oregon, author, 1974 to present. [S, Bib]

A series of 4-page reviews of recent research on a variety of educational topics, many relevant to organizational change. They have been collected, with additions, into three bound volumes.

210. ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management (Eugene, OR). School size: A reassessment of the small school. *Research Action Brief*, 1982, No. 21. [S, Ef, OrF]

The wide variation in minimum, optimum, and maximum sizes favored by writers is pointed out in a report by the Educational Research Service that summarizes 119 publications printed between 1924 and 1974. The minimum sizes recommended were from 195 to 720 for elementary schools, about 600 for middle schools, from 90 to 1,500 for junior highs, and from 100 to 1,600 for senior high schools. The optimums ranged from 350 to 720 for elementary schools, from 750 to 800 for middle schools, from 521 to 1,200 for junior highs, and from 293 to 2,000 for senior highs. The maximums ranged from 350 to 1,500 for elementary schools, from 900 to 1,400 for junior highs, and from 1,000 to 3,000 for senior highs. . . .

Although there are many qualifications, the optimum range of high schools in terms of cost effectiveness is probably in the neighborhood of 1,600 to 1,700 students, give or take a hundred. . . . As Fox notes, the cost function is a U-shaped curve; that is, from this optimum size, costs go up both with increases and with decreases in size . . . .

In [one] district smaller schools were found to have teachers who are more innovative; have "emergent" staffs that take on administrative responsibilities and have a voice in the running of the schools; have a family atmosphere in which children, teachers, and parents can know each other and create a supportive atmosphere; have close community relationships; and have a principal who knows a staff and can make the best use of it. To these claims, reduced rates of violence and vandalism can be added. -- from the article.

211. Essig, Don M. The effects of multiunit differentiated staffing organization on teachers' attitudes and instructional programs. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1971. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The primary purpose of this study was to explore the effects of [an] experiment with the organizational structure of the elementary school . . . . two experimental and two control schools participating in the experimental Multi-Unit, Differentiated Staffing project in the Eugene Public Schools were used. Data were collected in all four schools both immediately prior to and one year after the project was initiated.

[The] data . . . showed increased opportunities for students to be involved in determining their educational program, a greater number of collaborative teaching arrangements between staff members, additional involvement of non-classroom personnel with students on an instructional basis, new techniques used for reducing the adult-student ratio for many instructional activities, elimination of traditional lock-step ability-grouping practices, and the creation and maintenance of instructional units or teams with regular planning sessions. Data . . . also showed that involvement of staff members in the actual planning and development of the school's curriculum had increased. (author's abstract)

212. Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development. Transferring success. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory, 1976. [S, Int, Lin]

A book of case studies drawn from the experience of people who have participated in the National Diffusion Network, a linkage system established for the particular purpose of enabling people to share their knowledge and help each other promote change in schools. Each section contains "NDN Lessons," succinctly posed statements worth reading and remembering.

213. Favors, John. Parental involvement and its relation to student achievement. Doctoral dissertation, University of California at Berkeley, 1971. [S, Ef, OrF]

This study examines the effects on gains in academic achievement of students whose parents are involved in various levels of activity within the school program. The research was carried out in two elementary schools with a metropolitan ghetto area of northern California: an "experimental" school (having a number of innovative programs) and a more "traditional" school. Academic achievement was measured at pretest and posttest by standardized reading and mathematics tests.

Four randomly selected groups of students were assessed: Group I consisted of Experimental School children whose parents were employed as instructional aides in the school and were members of the School Site Parent Advisory Group. Group II consisted of Experimental School children whose parents did not participate in any of the formal organizations connected with the school. Group III consisted of Traditional School children whose parents participated in the Parent-Teachers

Association and/or the Community Council. Group IV consisted of Traditional School children whose parents did not participate in any of the formal organizations connected with the school.

The researcher concluded that, in combination with other factors (such as participation in an innovative school setting), high levels of parental involvement increased gains in student achievement.

214. Fein, Leonard J. The ecology of the public schools: An inquire into community control. New York: Pegasus, 1971. [S, Env, Lin]

. . . a brilliant (if caustic) discussion of the failure of integration in the schools, and of the now clear and implacable demands of blacks for control of the schools their children attend. Fein's primary concern "is to trace some of the threads which have led to a rejection of the goal of integrated education." The discussions are a highly sophisticated commentary on a wide range of concerns reported in books and Federal and state reports which have dealt with race and education; with decentralizaton; with emerging black demands and new postures; and with the restiveness of communities caught in the iron grip of urban poverty. . . . the book is invaluable in explaining why integration failed and what the remaining options for the schools appear to be. -- Choice, June 1972, p. 552.

215. Feitler, Fred C. and Lawrence L. Lippitt. A multi-district organizational effort. Educational Technology, 1972, 12(10), 34-38. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

This article describes . . . a fourteen-school change project . . . known as the "Consortium of Schools." The Southern Tier Office for Educational Planning began this endeavor in the Spring of 1970. The purpose of the project was to provide training through organizational development to a number of schools in a five-county region that would allow specific schools to determine for themselves the nature and kinds of organizational and program changes that were appropriate and critically needed. Through training in planning, interpersonal skills, and small-group leadership skills, schools have begun to move proactively toward self-determined goals and objectives. This is in marked contrast to our previous experience with innovative programs in schools, which indicated that typically they were reactive. . . . Frequently these innovations are either neutralized by the system or produce unanticipated outcomes that call for additional remedial action (p. 34).

216. Feyerabend, Paul. Against method. London: Verso, 1978. (Distributed in the U.S.A. and Canada by Schocken Books, New York.) [N, Ev, Env]

The following essay is written in the conviction that anarchism, while perhaps not the most attractive political philosophy, is certainly excellent medicine for epistemology, and for the philosophy of science (p. 17).

According to our present results, hardly any theory is *consistent with* the facts. The demand to admit only those theories which are consistent with the available and accepted facts again leaves us without any theory. (I repeat: *without any theory*, for there is not a single theory that is not in some trouble or other.) Hence, a science as we know it can exist only if we drop this demand also and again revise our methodology, *now admitting counterinduction in addition to admitting unsupported hypotheses*. The right methods must not contain any rules that make us choose between theories *on the basis of falsification*. Rather, its rules must enable us to choose between theories which we have already tested *and which are falsified* (p. 65).

To sum up: wherever we look, whatever examples we consider, we see that the principles of critical rationalism (take falsifications seriously; increase content; avoid *ad hoc* hypotheses; 'be honest' - whatever *that* means; and so on) and, *a fortiori*, the principles of logical empiricism (be precise; base your theories on measurements; avoid vague and unstable ideas; and so on) give an inadequate account of the past development of science and are liable to hinder science in the future. They give an inadequate account of science because science is much more 'sloppy' and 'irrational' than its methodological image. And, they are liable to hinder it, because the attempt to make science more 'rational' and more precise is bound to wipe it out. . . (p. 154).

Given science, reason cannot be universal and unreason cannot be excluded. This peculiar feature of the development of science strongly supports an anarchistic epistemology. But science is not sacrosanct. The restrictions it imposes (and there are many such restrictions though it is not easy to spell themm out) are not necessary in order to have general coherent and successful views about the world (p. 179).

See also Sarason (1978) and Scriven (1980).

217. Filley, Alan C. *Interpersonal conflict resolution*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, 1975. [N, Int, OrF]

[The author] has written a very clear, concise, and useful book on conflict. This work should be of great value to both practitioners and students alike. . . . The book begins with a straightforward model of conflict that integrates much of the existing theory and provides an easy way of thinking about how conflict is caused, how it occurs, and what consequences it has. . . . [Both] the positive and negative outcomes of conflict are discussed. Filley compares general approaches to conflict resolution, including lose-lose, win-lose, and win-win approaches, and then concentrates on methods of resolving conflict through the use of win-win oriented methods. . . .

Specifically, the different chapters deal with the various aspects of the conflict resolution process, including communication between the conflicting parties, personal conflict styles, attitudes and problem solving, and structural (such as physical space) aspects of conflict and problem solving. He concludes with a general model for solving problems. . . . In total, the Filley book is clear, well-written, and actually a joy to read. -- D.A. Nadler, Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1977, 13(2), 242-245. Quoted by permission of JAI Press.

218. Finch, Frederic E., Halsey R. Jones, and Joseph A. Litterer. Managing for organizational effectiveness: An experiential approach. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1976. [N, Int]

Contains exercises.

219. Firestone, William A. Images of schools and patterns of change. American Journal of Education, 1980, 88(4), 459-487. [SN, Int, OrF]

Contrasts the bureaucratic image of schools with four other possible images based on characteristics of social action in sects, legislatures, hospitals, and under anarchic conditions. Aims at developing a greater variety of ways to think about how schools can be organized. Various educational problems and means to resolve them are considered vis-a-vis these images. (author's abstract)

220. Flamholtz, Eric. Human resource accounting. Encino, CA: Dickenson, 1974. [N, OrF]

Measures of human resource cost and value . . . are useful in . . . manpower acquisition, development, allocation, conservation, utilization, evaluation, and reward (compensation). This book . . . presents concepts, models, techniques, theories, research findings, and organizational case studies. -- from the Preface. The book contains no illustrations from schools, but the systematic presentation of the subject is useful.

221. Flynn, C. Wayne. The principal as an organizational consultant to his own school. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1971. [S, Int, OrF, Lea, OD]

This study [tells of my] attempt . . . to step out of my role as principal for one year . . . to serve as an organizational consultant to my own staff and student body. . . . Nine hypotheses were tested; they were: (1) The high-school staff . . . will improve their communication during the intervention. (2) Participation in group meetings and initiation of influence attempts will become more widespread among the staff. (3) The high school will attempt to clarify and further develop its decision-making structure. (4) The staff will develop more productive working relationships as changing roles are recognized. (5) There will be initial steps taken to involve students in decision-making. (6) It is possible for a principal to step out of his role and be effective as a trainer with his own staff. (7) It is possible for a principal to acquire communicative and problem-solving skills and concurrently to use them in an intervention. (8) Participation in group meetings and attempts at influence will become more widespread among the students. (9) There will be increased agreement among students, among faculty members, and between students and faculty regarding the school's rules and regulations. (author's abstract)

Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 6, and 7 were supported by the data. Hypotheses 4, 5, 8, and 9 were not.

222. Flynn, C. Wayne. Management effectiveness by organizational development. *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, 1974, 58(382), 135-141. [S, OrF, Lea, OD]

One of the biggest changes that must take place is in the administrator who heads the organization. He must learn to share power and to feel comfortable in doing so. He must trust others not to misuse power and he must believe that generally better decisions will be made by groups, the members of which often have key pieces to the puzzles. The payoff is usually in the clarity of understanding that people have of the decisions that have been made and their ability and willingness to cooperate in implementing them. Clearly one of the disadvantages is the amount of time that must be devoted to problem-solving and decision-making (p. 140).

See also C.W. Flynn. Collaborative decision making in a secondary school: An experiment. *Education and Urban Society*, 1976, 8(2), 172-182.

223. Foa, Uriel G. Convergences in the analysis of the structure of interpersonal behavior. *Psychological Review*, 1961, 68, 341-353.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for annotation.

224. Foa, Uriel G. Three kinds of behavioral changes. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1968, 70, 460-473. [SN, Ev]

Distinguishes three kinds of change among multiple variables: (1) change in the central tendencies of the variables, (2) change in the degree of relation among the variables while the relations among the relations remain about the same, and (3) change in the ordering of differences among the relations among the variables, as can be seen most easily in the patterns of simplex, circumplex, and radex. Gives illustrations.

For more detail, see T.R. Mitchell and U.G. Foa. Diffusion of the effect of cultural training of the leader in the structure of heterocultural task groups. *Australian Journal of Psychology*, 1969, 21, 31-43.

For another article on kinds of change, see Golembiewski, Billingsley, and Yeager (1976).

225. Foa, Uriel G. and Edna B. Foa. *Societal structures of the mind*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1974. [SN, Mot]

The research of Foa and Foa led to the circular arrangement of interpersonnal resources above, in which similar categories can be placed next to one another. The resources at the top of the page are particularistic; those resources are given to or taken from others in forms suited to particular individuals. The resources at the bottom are universalistic; they fit any individual about equally well. The resources at the left are intangible, less concrete; those at the right are tangible, more concrete.

One can also note that information, money, and goods are more often transmissible in some durable, shipable, and storable form--money and goods are obviously so, and information is often printed in books and recorded on magnetic tape. Status, love, and services are more evanescent; they are more often transmitted face to face through media that allow the evidence to decay quickly--a momentary expression of deference, a caress, or a ride to the store for someone whose car is broken down. That evanescence may be one of the reasons that our technologies for dealing with those same resources at the organizational level (authority), climate, and role behavior) are so much less developed than our technologies for dealing with information, money, and goods. Indeed, the growth of organizational development as a technology during the last three decades can be described as an effort to make exchanges of status, love, and services less evanescent and more tangible. The resources in the figure also have similarities and dissimilarities in their substitutability. If an individual cannot easily get one of the six resources (the Foas argue), the individual is more likely to settle for an adjacent one than for one across the circle.

For connections with other writers on motives, see Schmuck and Runkel (1982). For still other writings, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

226. Forbess-Greene, Sue. Encyclopedia of icebreakers. St. Louis, MO: Applied Skills Press, 1982. [SN, Int, OD]

Contains energizers and tension reducers, feedback and disclosure, games and brainteasers, getting acquainted, openers and warm-ups, and professional development topics. -- Publisher's blurb.

227. Fordyce, Jack D. and Raymond Weil. Managing WITH people: A manager's handbook of organization development methods. (2nd ed.) Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1979. [N, Int, OD]

A useful handbook of techniques for various purposes in OD efforts. Also includes 4 case studies of managers or consultants in action.

228. Fosmire, Fred R., Carolin S. Keutzer, and Richard Diller. Starting up a new senior high school. In R.A. Schmuck and M.B. Miles (Eds.), Organization development in schools. Palo Alto, CA: National Press Books (now Mayfield Publishing), 1971; pp. 87-112. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Imagine the members of a football team playing a game without the benefit of practicing as a unit. Many new schools unfortunately do commence operation exactly this way--without any practice or rehearsals. After all, it is argued, so long as the teachers are capable, the administrators skilled, and the curriculum materials up to date, why spend energy on developing communication skills, group agreements, and team morale? Would not those develop naturally when a school has top-flight, highly-motivated personnel? The answer is NO. . . . A school is more than simply the sum total of its individual members and curriculum materials. This project shows that newly organized high school faculties can benefit significantly from OD training during their first year of operation. (editors' introduction)

See also Keutzer, Fosmire, Diller, and Smith (1971).

229. Fox, Robert, Margaret Luszki, and Richard A. Schmuck. Diagnosing classroom learning environments. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1966. [S, Cl, Ef, Ev, Mot]

Compendium of instruments that teachers can use with their students to assess the group dynamics and feelings present in the classroom. Contains cases showing how teachers have used many of the instruments. Guidelines are given on how to organize the data into figures and charts for presentation to students.

230. Fox, Robert, Richard A. Schmuck, Elmer Van Egmond, Miriam Ritvo, and Charles Jung. Diagnosing professional climates of schools. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1976. [S, Cl, Ev, OrF, OD]

This manual is directed to aid staff members to improve the professional climate of their schools. The guide has two main parts: part one begins with a description of the program, and some concepts and theories about the school as a social system; the remaining chapters cover solving problems for school improvement, who's responsible for what, how do we typically do things, and using one another's resources. -- Maguire, Temkin, and Cummings (1971).

231. Fox, Robert, Richard A. Schmuck, and others. School climate improvement: A challenge to school administrators. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa in association with Fearon Publishers, 1974. [S, Ev, Int, OrF]

The questionnaire [offered in this book] is designed so that the perceptions of students, teachers, parents, other staff members, building administrators, [and] district administrators can be ascertained with respect to four major determinants of school climate. Three to eight subscales, consisting of five items each, are identified within each major determinant. The major determinants [are]: (A) General climate factors, (B) Program Determinants, (C) Process Determinants, and (D) Material Determinants. -- Publisher's blurb

232. Francisco, Richard P. The Documentation and Technical Assistance Project in urban schools. Theory Into Practice, 1979, 18(4), 89-96. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

We discovered that a . . . powerful use of data feedback was to use the data to build teams or to solve problems with a team. An example comes from our work in the high school. The primary concerns of the principal were the lack of teamwork in the guidance department and the department's weak organizational structure. After collecting data that included both observations of the organizational procedures and interviews with each member of the department, the principal, and several teachers, we concluded that the principal's assertions were accurate. When we presented the data to members of the guidance department, we discovered that the concerns of the principal were concerns they and others shared. The data enabled the group to see the weakness and strengths of their team. They then agreed to participate in several team building sessions. Our training sessions led to their becoming a more close, cohesive group. Trust for one another increased and enabled them to make strong agreements about rearranging their organizational structure (p. 91).

Process observation and feedback is closely related to data feedback. The mode involves observing some type of group or team activity. Information from the observation serves as data. The data may be fed back immediately or stored and given at another time.

An example may be pulled from our work with [the] high school guidance team. After we had instructed the team in some of our basic meeting skills, we observed their next meeting. During the course of that meeting, we occasionally stopped the process, made comments about how we saw what occurred, and asked the participants to tell their feelings about the new process. In essence we facilitated the group as they adjusted to a new style. It was like helping a person to buy a new suit of clothes. Before making the purchase, individuals normally glance at themselves in a mirror to check the fit and make changes accordingly. We served as the mirror for the group, reflecting their desires and feelings as they tested a new organizational process (p. 93).

[One occasion on which we used confrontation] found us in conflict with a principal--the high school principal. One of the principal's top administrators acted as a liaison between the guidance department and the principal; though not a member of the team she was by job description its official leader. After many months of diagnosing, planning, training, and meetings, the team launched its new program. A week later during their regularly scheduled meeting, news came via the liaison that the principal thought the new guidance program was a dismal failure. The reaction of the group was one of shock and disappointment, because they, as we, were reasonably satisfied with the first week's progress. Some of the group felt that the news was to be no more than expected, because the principal in their view could not be counted on to support them. Others in that group, who during the early stages of training and planning had voiced the belief that the principal had some secret plan and would never allow the department he despised most to build its own program, reaffirmed their belief. At the moment the news arrived, the entire group was ready to give up their new effort and return to old habits. We insisted that rather than throw away four months of hard work, the group invite the principal into the meeting and hear his comments at first hand. The group did send for the principal, and he was quite surprised to hear the message that he had supposedly sent. He agreed that a few things in the new program were not to his liking, but if the department was satisfied and wanted it that way, then he would stand behind them. . . . [He] congratulated the department on the work they had achieved and the changes they had made. He encouraged them to continue. Without that confrontation, work would have ceased; but as it was it turned out in later months our activities with the group increased (p. 94).

233. Franke, Richard H. and James D. Kaul. The Hawthorne experiments: First statistical interpretation. American Sociological Review, 1978, 43(5), 623-643. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

The authors analyzed nearly five years of data from the main part of the Western Electric studies--the first relay assembly test room. The time-series multiple regression failed to support the prevalent interpretation that considerate or participative treatment of the workers resulted in higher productivity. On the contrary, imposition of mangerial discipline, economic misfortune on the part of certain workers, and the quality of raw materials accounted for most of the increased productivity.

See also W.I. Wardwell. Critique of a recent professional put-down of the Hawthorne researchers. American Sociological Review, 1979, 44(5), 858-861. Also R.H. Franke. The Hawthorne experiments: Re-view. American Sociological Review, 1979, 44(5), 861-867. Also R. Schlaifer. The relay assembly test room: An alternative statistical interpretation. American Sociological Review, 1980, 45, 995-1005. Also B.L. Pitcher. The Hawthorne experiments: Statistical evidence for a learning hypothesis. Social Forces, 1981, 60(1), 133-149.

234. Franklin, Jerome L. Organization development: An annotated bibliography. Ann Arbor: Center for Research on the Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, 1973. [SN, Int, OrF, OD, Bib]

Includes theoretical statements, empirical analyses, conceptual formulations, case studies, and descriptions of techniques commonly used in organization change efforts.

235. Franklin, Jerome L. Down the organization: Influence processes across levels of hierarchy. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1975, 20(2), 153-164. [N, Int, OrF]

In the between-time analyses, . . . all four subordinate-level factors are best predicted by the same superior-level factor; that is, group process. . . . If this period of slightly greater than a year provides a reasonable estimate of the required lag period for significant change to move down one level in a hierarchy, it is clear why major changes in management systems of organizations have been estimated to require several years to really take effect. This would be especially true for development efforts with interventions impinging primarily upon restricted areas at the top of the organization (p. 161).

236. Franklin, Paula and Richard Franklin. Tomorrows track: Experiments with learning to change. Columbia, MD: New Community Press, 1976. [N, Int, Env, Lin]

Education can be powerful as a means in managing social complexities. Just as they have learned old ways, people can--and do--attain new understandings, new patterns of behaving. They have the capacity to become more competent, self-esteeming persons continuously designing more satisfying human organizations. Social systems thus grow in power and fruitfulness. Human potential gets transformed into competence with which to confront the challenging tasks of human communities. Individuals and groups, in concert, can incorporate into their behavior the methods of science (systematic problem solving) and the philosophy of democracy (distributed influence in decision making) (pp. 137-138).

An account of five years of community development in West Virginia; it tells many experiences with experiential education with community groups.

237. Freedman, M.B., T.F. Leary, A.G. Ossorio, and H.S. Coffey. The interpersonal dimension of personality. Journal of Personality, 1951, 20, 143-161. [SN, Mot]

Proposes two dimensions of social motives: domination-submission and love-hate.

For other writings on similar motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

238. French, John R. P. and Bertram H. Raven. The bases of social power. In D. Cartwright (Ed.), Studies in social power. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1959; pp. 150-167.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for annotation.

239. French, Wendell L. and Cecil H. Bell, Jr. Organization development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement. (2nd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1978. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

A comprehensive text covering the history, theory, and practice of OD.

240. Friedlander, Frank. The primacy of trust as a facilitator of further group accomplishment. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1970, 6, 387-400. [N, OrF]

Initial intragroup trust was a better predictor of subsequent perceptions of group effectiveness and the work of the group meetings than the initial ratings on the same dimensions. But intragroup trust itself was not increased by the training except when pre- and postwork with the consultant occurred. -- Friedlander and Brown (1974, p. 329).

241. Friedlander, Frank. Emergent and contemporary life styles: An intergenerational issue. Human Relations, 1975, 28(4), 329-347. [N, Env, Mot]

The life style pattern of youth as indicated in this study clearly reflects (1) a low trust in guidance from higher authority--law and order, precedent, those in a position of higher responsibility; (2) a low need for defining personal fulfillment as moving upward in accordance with the traditional meaning of success, advancement and reward; (3) a strong preference and value for self guidance, self exploration, self discovery based upon freedom to experience a variety of feelings and events.

. . . Compared to college students in the late 1950s and early 1960s, recent college students show increased negativism toward authority figures in organizations, toward assuming managerial role prescriptions in large bureaucracies, toward accepting administrative responsibilities, toward competitive motivation and toward assuming masculine roles. . . . (p. 344)

242. Friedlander, Frank and L. Dave Brown. Organization development. In M.R. Rosensweig and L.W. Porter (Eds.), Annual Review of Psychology. (Vol. 25) Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews, 1974; pp. 313-341. [SN, Int, OrF, OD]

A well-balanced review of the state of research and practice in 1974. "First, OD is not a short-term process; on the contrary, these [especially effective] cases took years to bear fruit. Second, it is important to have the support and active involvement of top management in the project; without that support it is difficult to gain commitment from lower levels. Third, in these projects interventions were made at several levels of the organizational hierarchy; support of top management by itself is not a sufficient condition for success. Finally, unambigious evaluation of OD interventions is exceedingly difficult to arrange even with professional researchers involved as in these cases" (p. 333). Includes a few mentions of OD in schools.

243. Friedlander, Frank and P. Toni Green. Life styles and conflict-coping structures. Group and Organization Studies, 1977, 2(1), 101-112. [N, OrF, Mot]

Most task-group structures are hierarchical, but what kind would people create if they had a choice? Our hypothesis was that structures built by group members in dealing with conflict and decision making would be contingent on their life styles. Three different sets of groups of persons with homogeneous life styles created three different (and predicted) structures in a problem-solving task. Groups in which members placed a heavy reliance on higher authority (formalistic life style) created a bureaucratic structure (and scored most effective);

groups with a "do your own thing" (personalistic) life style created an anarchistic structure (and scored least effective); groups whose members placed a high value on close, intimate relations (sociocentric life styles) created a collaborative structure (and scored in the mid-range). (authors' abstract)

For other writing on motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

244. Fullan, Michael and Alan Pomfret. Research on curriculum and instruction implementation. Review of Educational Research, 1977, 47(2), 335-397. Copyright 1977, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [S, Cl, Int, OrF, Lin]

It should be clear by now that implementation is a highly complex process involving relationships between users and managers, and among various groups of users, in a process characterized by inevitable conflict and by anticipated and unanticipated problems that should be prepared for prior to attempting implementation, and continually addressed during it. The policy implications vary according to whether one takes a fidelity or mutual adaptation perspective. The weight of evidence . . . leads us to choose the latter approach to policy reform.

In general, current central policies (at both the national and school district level) at best promote adoption. These policies do not have a strong influence on implementation because they fail to address those factors most critical for implementation. In order to support more effective implementation some major interrelated steps are necessary.

First, instead of promoting specific innovations, central policy makers should be emphasizing broad-based programs and providing corresponding support for local development of specific forms of implementation. . . .

Second, local experimentation should be encouraged during implementation to develop variants of innovation in which specific goals and means are seen as consequences of exploration, negotiation, and "development in use". . . .

Third, evaluation of innovative projects at least during initial implementation should be directed toward facilitating implementation and local system capabilities through data feedback and other forms of support, rather than toward judging success or failure. . . .

Fourth, and closely related to the previous points, the incentive system for implementation would have to be drastically altered at all levels. If there is one finding that stands out in our review, it is that effective implementation of social innovations requires time, personal interaction and contacts, in-service training, and other forms of people-based support (pp. 390-391).

245. Fullan, Michael, Matthew B. Miles, and Gib Taylor. OD in schools: The state of the art. (5 vols.) (Final report to the National Institute

of Education under contract nos. 400-77-0051 and 0052) Toronto: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education, 1978. The authors have made three extractions from the original report: (1) M. Fullan and M.B. Miles. OD in schools: The state of the art. In W.W. Burke (Ed.), *The cutting edge: Current theory and practice in organization development*. San Diego, CA; University Associates, 1978; pp. 149-174. (2) M. Fullan, M.B. Miles, and G. Taylor. Organization development in schools: The state of the art. *Review of Educational Research*, 1980, 50(1), 121-183. (3) M.B. Miles and M. Fullan. The nature and impact of organization development in schools. In M.M. Milstein (Ed.), *Schools, conflict, and change*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1980; pp. 72-95. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The authors have produced the first large-scale quantitative survey of OD in schools. Their study comprehensively assesses the state of knowledge about educational OD and the extent of it use in school districts in the United States and Canada. Perhaps the most striking discovery of Fullan, Miles, and Taylor was that a great deal more OD was going on in school districts than many of us had expected. They located 308 consultants who had been doing extensive OD with schools in the United States and Canada during the previous five years and 76 school districts where OD had gone on for at least 18 months. Surprisingly, more than 50 percent of the consultants working in those projects were insiders with little or no formal training in OD and little or no linkage to experts in OD.

The response to Fullan, Miles, and Taylor's questionnaire indicated that high impact was usually associated with the implementation of instructional innovations such as team teaching, individualized instruction, and alternative schools. They say (1978, Vol. III, p. 24):

> When asked about the pace of educational change efforts occurring concurently with the OD program, 61 percent [of the school districts] said it was faster than usual, 30 percent about the same, and only 9 percent said it was slower. We asked if the OD effort contributed to this. The findings were quite clear: 63 percent said the OD program had directly caused a "few" (30 percent) or "many" (33 percent) other change efforts, and *no* respondent said OD had slowed down or blocked other change efforts.

Many districts reported some unwanted effects such as resistance or increased work load, but those annoyances usually did not cause termination of the projects. Two-thirds of the districts thought that OD should "definitely" be used more widely in schools. Persons from a majority of the 76 districts had attended conferences where they told how OD had helped their districts. Persons from a third had visited other districts to explain their work, and sent out reports, or had written articles. Three-quarters of the districts predicted that OD would become institutionalized in their districts.

When asked what benefits (impact) their districts had expected and received from their projects, twenty percent answered "improved communication," ten percent "decision making," eight percent "planning," eight percent "improved relationships," eight percent "productivity," eight percent "new educational programs," and six percent "commitment to change." Respondents gave similar answers when they were asked what benefits they had not expected but got. The exception was a "spin-off or extension to new participants" (16 percent).

As it turned out, the projects reported had a variety of focuses: personnel development, desegregation, curriculum change, accountability, MBO-PPBS, comprehensive school improvement, and "classical OD." The authors (1978, Vol. III, p. 42) listed the percentages of projects in each category that scored moderately high to high on impact. Except for two projects on desegregation, both of which scored moderately high or higher, the category with the highest percentage scoring moderately high to high on impact was classical OD, with 66 percent. The lowest personnel development, with 29 percent.

Fullan, Miles, and Taylor found success (indicated by impact, favorable attitudes, or institutionalization) to be more frequent with (1) support from top management, (2) task emphasis, (3) sustained consultation from trained consultants inside the district, (4) early planning for an internal steering committee, (5) close partnership between inside and outside consultants, and (6) seeing OD as a continuing way of life, among other things. Finally, Fullan, Miles, and Taylor (1980, p. 176) wrote: "OD programs . . . can reasonably be expected to improve organizational climate and functioning, increase instructional innovations, and improve student outcomes. Dollar costs are often less than one-half of one percent of total budget. . . ."

246. Gage, Nate L., Philip J. Runkel, and Bishwa B. Chatterjee. Changing teacher behavior through feedback from pupils: An application of equilibrium theory. In W.W. Charters, Jr. and N.L. Gage (Eds.), Readings in the social psychology of education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1963; pp. 173-180. Reprinted in M. Argyle (Ed.), Social encounters: Readings in social interaction. Middlesex, England: Penguin Books, 1973; pp. 371-382. [S, Cl, Int]

Fifth-grade students filled out questionnaires telling the extent to which they saw their teachers performing certain visible actions, and another telling the degree to which they would like teachers to perform those actions. Summaries of the responses were given to the teachers. Later ratings by the students showed a relative trend of changed action on the part of teachers given this feedback toward the wishes of the students, compared to teachers not given feedback.

For similar studies, see Burns (1977), Daw and Gage (1967), Hovenier (1966), Margaret Nelson (1972), Schmuck (1973), and Tuckman, McCall, and Hyman (1969).

247. Galbraith, Jay R. Designing the innovating organization. Organizational Dynamics, 1982, 10(3), 5-25. [N, Int, OrF]

Many organizations want innovation, but very few get it--simply because very few organizations put together all the pieces required to innovate. Most organizations are structured as operating organizations --but an organization designed to do something for the millionth time is not good at doing something for the first time. That's why successful innovation must be based on an innovating organization--distinct from the routine operating one. The innovating organization should differ in terms of structure, key processes, incentive systems, and people.

With respect to structure, three roles are critical: (1) an idea generator, (2) a sponsor--to promote the idea generator's innovation, and (3) an orchestrator--to manage the innovation, especially the political aspects. Other structural components include differentiation (separating the innovators from operations) and "reservations" (organizational units totally devoted to idea generation). Key processes include funding, setting up procedures to an operating unit, and implementing the innovation.

Finally, concerning people, it appears that innovators are hard to get along with, have strong egos, are risk takers and achievers, and are irreverent toward the status quo. Thus such people need to be discovered, developed and, to some extent, protected. Sponsors and reservation managers are therefore as critical to the innovating organization as are the idea generators themselves--and they need special incentives. -- abstract by the editors of Organizational Dynamics. Reprinted, by permission of the publisher, from Jay R. Galbraith, Designing the innovating organization, Organizational Dynamics, 1982, vol. 10, copyright 1982 by AMACOM, a division of American Management Associations, New York. All rights reserved.

For another discussion of the idea generator, see Daft and Becker (1978).

248. Gentry, Joe E. and J. Foster Watkins. Organizational training for improving race relations. In C.B. Derr (Ed.), Organizational development in urban school systems. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1974; pp. 138-152. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

Story of a previously all-black elementary school near Auburn, Alabama that converted to mixed black and white during 1970-71. A training design was used similar to that used by Schmuck and Runkel (1970). The authors conclude that "(1) the organizational training workshop had a meaningful, immediate, short-range impact on the principal and the staff of the experimental school. . . . (2) the organizational training workshop had a differential effect on the principal and the staff over the course of the school year immediately following the training. . . . (3) one year was not a sufficient period of time for organizational training to be transferred completely into meaningful organizational development results. . . . (4) the key role of the principal in the American public school and its organizational development has been reemphasized by the current study."

249. Gersten, Russell and Douglas Carnine. Administrative and supervisory support functions for the implementation of effective educational programs for low income students. Occasional Paper, Center for Educational Policy and Management, Eugene, OR, 1981. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Lea]

The argument in support of loose coupling and other prevailing school organization patterns is flawed in two ways. First, while schools as they are presently organized may adequately serve middle- and upper-middle-class students, they utterly fail in teaching poor and minority students. . . . The second flaw has to do with the existence of viable alternatives to loose coupling. Current research provides empirical data supporting the effectiveness of such possible alternatives. An extensive educational technology for the primary grades exists. These new findings justify more rational organizations for schools (pp. 6-7).

Past research on efforts at educational change suggests several plausible key elements, or support functions, in successful change and the institutionalization of that change. Several of these support functions are . . . (a) consistent, concrete feedback and technical assistance to teachers, (b) leadership functions exercised by a site-level administrator with a visible commitment to the innovation, (c) incentives and emotional support for teachers from peer groups and/or administrators, (d) a clearly articulated educational innovation, (e) a monitoring system, (f) mutual adaptation; that is, both the change agent and the school district have a stake in the articulation and adaptation of the innovation, and (g) a clearly articulated plan for institutional change (pp. 20-21).

250. Gintis, Herbert. Toward a political economy of education: A radical critique of Ivan Illich's "Deschooling Society." Harvard Educational Review, 1972, 42(1), 70-96. Reprinted in This Magazine is About Schools, 1972, 6(1), 117-145. [S, Env]

Gintis rejects Illich's thesis, which says the present character of schooling stems from the economy's need to shape capitalistic consumer wants. According to Gintis, educational change must embrace a transformation mechanism of power and privilege in the economic sphere. (AF in Current Index to Journals in Education, 1972, p. 443)

251. Glaser, Edward M. Consultation in institutions for child development. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1977, 13(1), 89-109. [N, Int, OrF]

. . . when an organization becomes involved in critical self-examination of its goals, opportunities, modus operandi and problems, [not only does its staff] seek new ways of improving performance, but in that process a climate is created that makes for readiness or openness to consider seemingly relevant R&D findings or innovations developed by others. Observations from the present study would suggest an important modification or condition to the above generalization; namely, that it is likely to hold true only when (a) the climate for critical self-examination is hospitable, encouraging, and rewarding; (b) there is relative freedom from serious, pervasive, internal power struggles or animosities among key staff; and (c) there is sustained commitment, monitoring, follow-through, and positive reinforcement for such a procedure by consensually accepted proper authority figures in the given situation (p. 101).

. . . organizations most likely to profit from consultation are those that have: (1) learning readiness; (2) a felt need for improvement, in the sense of feeling creative discontent and wanting to improve; (3) freedom from excessive internal power struggles, divisiveness, hostilities, or other types of disharmony or anxieties (p. 105). (Quoted by permission of JAI Press.)

252. Glaser, Edward M. and Samuel H. Taylor. Factors influencing the success of applied research. American Psychologist, 1973, 28(2), 139-146. [N, Int, Env, Lin]

Five successful and five less successful applied research projects . . . were studied in depth through the life cycle of the projects. . . . Particularly significant are recommendations providing concrete suggestions for planning and development of research projects so as to maximize utilization potential. Suggestions include (for example) high communication awareness and involvement with relevant persons and groups (such as potential users) within and outside the immediate research environment, beginning with the inception of the project; importance of having as principal investigator the person who designed the project--and having him on the project full time, if feasible; workshops and institutes concerning the project findings which are keyed to service setting; deliberate planning for systematic dissemination of findings. -- NIMH (1971).

Control over own fate (power) looms strong in the study by Glaser and Taylor. For other writings on satisfaction of motives, see the entries for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

253. Glass, Gene V. School class size: Research and policy. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1982. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

How important is small class size to pupil learning?. . . The authors synthesize evidence drawn from scores of books, dissertations, and research reports to provide the definitive work on the subject. In addition to demonstrating that class size does, in fact, affect student achievement, they examine why smaller classes improve pupil performance and how student-teacher rations influence pupil attitudes towards both teachers and schools. In conclusion, they invite six distinguished authorities--a school board member, a spokesman for the NEA, a state governor, a school principal, an international economist, and a British educational expert--to expand upon the policy implications of the data supporting small classes. -- Publisher's blurb

254. Glassman, Robert B. Persistence and loose coupling in living systems. Behavioral Science, 1973, 18(2), 83-98. [N, OrF]

Though this article was not written with schools particularly in mind, it has implications for designing feedback loops among students, teachers, administration, and community. Loose coupling, or low interdependence, between systems or sub-systems enables one to continue a routine despite (limited) changes of input from one to the other. For example, the politician has time before the next election to make himself attractive, and can therefore do a few unattractive things. This article does not discuss schools, but we can interpret it to caution us not to shorten feedback loops too severely. Perhaps the feedback cycle from student to teacher or from parent to teacher should be very short, ranging from a second to a week. Perhaps the lag of feedback to the management of the school or district should range from a month to a year. Perhaps the lag in the connection between school and community might range from a year to three years. All of those periods are surely shorter than typical lags at present--as typified by the parent who says, "I don't want my boy to be treated the way I was in school!"

255. Golembiewski, Robert T., Keith Billingsley, and Samuel Yeager. Measuring change and persistence in human affairs: Types of change generated by OD designs. (1975 Douglas McGregor Memorial Award-winning paper) Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1976, 12(2), 133-157. [SN, Ev, Int]

. . . this paper urges distinguishing kinds of change, distinctions which are suggested by experience and also are supported with evidence generated by exotic statistical and computational techniques in which we have been engaged. An immediate pay-off of making such distinctions is more definite reliance on existing research findings, whose interpretation is necessarily related to their underlying concept of change. More central still, the goal is to facilitate the design and evaluation of efforts to improve the human condition and the quality of life, especially in organizations.

Initially, conceptual clarification of "change" will show that at least three kinds seem distinguishable. Later, data from a study of a "successful" Flexi-Time intervention will be used to test these conceptual clarifications. Detailed statistical analysis will support the broad position that a unitary concept of change is inappropriate and may be seriously misleading. (authors' abstract)

ALPHA CHANGE involves a variation in the level of some existential state, given a constantly calibrated measuring instrument related to a constant conceptual domain.

BETA CHANGE involves a variation in the level of some existential state, complicated by the fact that some intervals of the measurement continuum associated with a constant conceptual domain have been recalibrated.

GAMME CHANGE involves a redefinition or reconceptualization of some domain, a major change in the perspective or frame of reference within which phenomena are perceived and classified, in what is taken to be relevant in some slice of reality (pp. 134-135).

See also J.R. Terborg, G.S. Howard, and S.E. Maxwell. Evaluating planned organizational change: A method for assessing alpha, beta, and gamma change. Academy of Management Review, 1980, 5(1), 109-121.

For another article on kinds of change, see Foa (1968).

256. Goodlad, John I. The dynamics of educational change: Toward responsive schools. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, Orf]

A basic cause for the failure of change efforts in education is that each school is a natural, not a mechanical system. Consequently, a school cannot be adequately understood in terms of its isolated components and their separate operation but only as an interrelated whole. Schools will not change until the social system of the whole school is taken into account and the single school and its resources are mobilized to bring about improvement.

This volume is the synthesis of a five year research project--the study of Educational Change and School Improvement--where eighteen elementary and intermediate schools' staffs were involved. Dr. Goodlad provides an important contribution to educational theory as well as a comprehensive strategy for educational change. -- Publisher's blurb.

For other writings from IDEA, see Bentzen and associates (1974), Culver and Hoban (1973), Goodlad (1977), Seeman and Seeman (1976), Tye and Novotney (1975), and Williams, Wall, Martin, and Berchin (1974).

257. Goodlad, John I. What goes on in our schools? Educational Researcher, 1977, 6(3), 3-6. [S, Cl, OrF]

"There is not now either a body of data on what transpires in schools . . . or a tested methodology for securing these data." Goodlad goes on to review the few studies done so far. For example, one study found that teachers devoted 40 percent or more of their time to management routines and maintaning order. Another study reported that teachers spent only 30 percent of their time on academic instruction. Later in the article, Goodlad announces a large project now under way to document what goes on in schools. Gooalad also reports conclusions from the work with the League of Cooperating Schools; they match well with other findings.

For other writings from IDEA, see Bentzen and associates (1974), Culver and Hoban (1973), Goodlad (1975), Seeman and Seeman (1976), Tye and Novotney (1975), and Williams, Wall, Martin and Berchin (1974).

258. Goodson, Max R. and Warren O. Hagstrom. Using teams of change agents. In R.A. Schmuck and M.B. Miles (Eds.), Organization development in schools. Palo Alto, CA: National Press Books (now Mayfield), 1971; pp. 155-184. [S, Int, Tea, OD]

...many school districts at one time or another during the past ten years have tried to establish small teams for stimulating change. Unfortunately, most often such teams sputtered quickly and became non-functional. Reasons for failure were multiple, of course, but one could argue--as Goodson and Hagstrom do--that in order to succeed such teams must learn the skills, norms, and procedures needed to sustain a concerted effort when the going gets rough. . . .

This study shows that even those change-agent teams that are carefully selected, trained, and supported by skilled outside consultants have difficulty in carrying out their primary purposes.
-- from the editors' introduction.

259. Gooler, Dennis D. and Donald P. Ely, The impact of organization on curriculum change. Educational Technology, 1972, 12(10), 39-42. [S, Cl, OrF]

What follows are some observations about the effects of organization on attempts to engage in curricular change in a department of educational technology in a major university. While there are many curriculum development efforts in higher education, there is almost no documentation of the process. This article is an attempt to highlight the steps taken by one department which decided to bring about changes through a broad involvement of students and faculty. It should be emphasized that the recollections and speculations of the authors are just that. Also, it is too early to tell just what will result from the dialogue on curriculum still taking place within the department. Given these disclaimers, we will attempt to describe some elements of organization that seem particularly relevant to curriculum change, and will discuss how those elements operated within a specific department context. Wonderings will be found more frequently than hard facts (p. 39).

260. Granovetter, Mark S. The strength of weak ties. American Journal of Sociology, 1973, 78(6), 1360-1380. [SN, OrF]

Analysis of social networks is suggested as a tool for linking micro and macro levels of sociological theory. It is argued that the degree of overlap of two individuals' friendship network varies directly with the strength of their tie to one another. Stress is laid on the cohesive power of weak ties. Emphasis on weak ties lends itself to discussion of relations between groups and to analysis of segments of social structure not easily defined in terms of primary groups. The model may help change agents assess paradoxes within an orgainization, such as cohesive groups within a fragmented school district or cliques existing in a rather disorganized faculty. (author's abstract)

261. Gray, L.N. and M.H. Von Broembsen. On the generalizability of the law of effect: Social psychological measurement of group structures and process. Sociometry, 1976, 39(3), 175-183. [N, Int, Mot]

In this paper, the individual Law of Effect . . . is expanded by utilizing a comparison process to generalize the law to multi-organism interactions. Data are presented from research in the fields of psychology, social psychology, and administrative science to demonstrate the wide applicability of the law. (author's abstract)

See also Doreian (1979).

262. Greenwood, Gordon E. and others. Citizen advisory committees. Theory into Practice, 1977, 16(1), 12-26. [S, Env]

The authors, drawing on their work with advisory committees in Florida, critically examine all aspects of such committees, including committee functions, operation, and evaluation. Their examination brings many valuable suggestions for practitioners. . . .

The authors . . . suggest use of a "parent involvement specialist" to help solve the attitude problems of both administrators, who may feel threatened, and parents, who may feel unqualified. The specialist, perhaps a regular staff member released part time, could conduct inservice training for administrators and parents and ease communication problems as necessary. (abstracted by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, in "The Best of ERIC," 1977, No. 30).

263. Greenwood, Peter W., Dale Mann, and Milbrey W. McLaughlin. Federal programs supporting educational change, Vol. III: The Process of change. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corp., R-1589/3-HEW, 1975. [S, Cl, Int, OrF, Lin]

Successful project implementation was found to be related to the type, not to the amount of project planning. "On-line" project planning ... permitting frequent reassessment of project methods and goals was found to be the most effective.

The more training given project staff, the better. Pre-service training combined with in-service training was found to be particularly important to projects expecting staff to implement the far-reaching changes embodied in projects such as the classroom organization projects. . . . The most effective training took the form of very concrete "how-to-do-it" workshops given by local personnel. Outside technical assistants were generally not effective in the training role.

Frequent, regular meetings of project personnel facilitated project implementation. They provided a forum for discussing project problems, sharing ideas, and promoting staff morale.

The local development of project materials, as opposed to the use of commercially prepared systems, appeared to contribute to project implementation and the amount of change achieved. Local develoment provided an opportunity for "learning by doing" as well as a sense of identification with project goals and more thorough understanding of precepts.

Intangible professional or psychological incentives were more effective in soliciting teacher cooperation and involvement than were more tangible incentives such as extra pay, credit on the district salary scale, and the like. Similarly, projects staffed by volunteers were more likely to be successfully implemented.

Elementary school projects were typically more successful than high school or junior high school projects.

The existence of other innovative projects in the district sometimes detracted from the attention paid a given project and thus its chances of success.

Strong administrative support from all levels of the system appeared to be essential to successful project implementation.

Significant classroom changes were more likely to occur when staff were provided with ongoing administrative or technical help from local resource people that complemented the training or materials development phases of the project. -- from Cresap, McCormick, and Paget, Inc. Developing a framework for the dissemination of educational and R&D products. New York: Author, 1976; pp. 108-110.

264. Gross, Neal, Joseph B. Giacquinta, and Marilyn Bernstein. Implementing organizational innovations. New York: Basic Books, 1971. Adapted excerpts appear in M.B. Miles and W.W. Charters, Jr. (Eds.), Learning in social settings. New York: Allyn and Bacon, 1970; pp. 691-705. The latter is reprinted in J.V. Baldridge and T.E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley. McCutchan, 1975; pp. 409-426. [S, Int, OrF]

Proposes a sociological analysis of educational change and . . . examines some of the underlying problems of moving schools from one ideological and pedagogical place to another through a systematic and intense analysis of one school's attempt to change the role of the teacher.

Reports that skills and knowledge necessary to perform a new role, when not present or attended to, promote significant blockage of change. Likewise, fuzzily conceived organizational arrangements and lack of necessary materials contribute to resistance, even where there has been initial commitment. -- A. Lieberman and G.A. Griffin in Teachers College Record, 1976, 77(3), 416-423.

265. Gross, Neal, Ward S. Manson, and Alexander W. McEachern. Explorations in role anaylsis: Studies of the school superintendency role. New York: Wiley, 1958. [S, OrF, Lea]

Explores the problems of consensus on role definition, conformity to expectations, and role conflict resolution--central problems of role analysis. Examines the impact of consensus on role definition on the functioning of a social system. Tests a theory of role conflict resolution.

266. Gross, Ronald and Beatrice Gross (Eds.) Radical school reform. New York: Clarion, 1969. [S, Cl, Int, OrF]

Contains many ideas for change in schools. Chapters 9-13 are especially helpful to those who want to increase student participation or develop a curriculum.

267. Gross, Thomas Frank. Illusions, crisis, awareness, and realignment: A case study of an organizational change project and a model of the consultant-client relationship. Doctoral dissertation, Harvard University, 1980. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

This study analyzes the author's two-year Organization Development (OD) effort with the administrative team of an inner city school. The aim was to assist the team in functioning more effectively so that, in turn, it could significantly improve the educational effectiveness of the school. The primary focus of the study was the relationship between the OD consultant and the clients. . . .

Chapter I, ILLUSIONS, focuses on the first several months of the intervention and how that time was characterized by the defensiveness of the consultant and the clients. . . . Chapter II, CRISIS AND AWARENESS, explores how at the end of the first year our survey feedback assessment of the OD activities harshly revealed that the principal and I had considered the activities to have been successful, contrary to the rest of the administrative team. . . . Chapter III, THE FIRST REALIGNMENT AND SUCCESSIVE CYCLES OF ICAR, covers the second year of our working relationship. We began the year with a realignment of the Renewal project by attempting to clarigy our planning objectives. At the same time I realigned my behavior in the direction of becoming more directive. . . . Chapter IV, ICAR MODEL, A MODEL OF THE CONSULTANT-CLIENT RELATIONSHIP, describes a model of the development of the generic consultant-client relationship.

. . . the Renewal Model assumes that the intervention must begin with a more strongly practical focus on structural and problem-solving dimensions. It further assumes that this strategy can be effective if certain conditions are met.

1. Practicality: People in participating schools have no tolerance for any approach for improvement which cannot produce tangible, practical results within a shor time (6 months) and with a minimal money investment.

2. An initiating event: To stimulate the demand and create a climate that encourages innovation, a special experience such as a broad-based

planning effort is needed, both as a kind of optimistic re-orientation of the normal routine of handling school problems and as a means of generating hope for improvement and commitment to change.

3. The consultant role must be practically oriented: An Od consultant, skilled in planned organizational change and the Renewal process, is a necessary resource to help the school design, implement and institutionalize its unique adaptation of the Renewal process. . . .

4. The outside catalyst: The Renewal consultants have been members of the Economic Development Council (EDC), a non-profit, business-supported management consulting firm. The history of the Renewal Program indicates a large role played by EDC in providing the impetus, seed money, legitimacy, and energy necessary to initiate and develop such an undertaking. . . .

5. Enlisting local talent and resources: The capacity to improve a school resides within the resources of the school itself. . . .

6. Designing the Renewal process to fit the school: While schools have similar basic processes and structures, they are unique in their human and material resources, students, configuration of problems, history, and concerns. . . . (author's abstract)

See also Bassin, Gross, and Jordan (1979), Porterfield and Porterfield (1979), and Simmelkjaer (1979).

268. Guba, Egon G. and Yvonna S. Lincoln. Effective evaluation: Improving the usefulness of evaluation results through responsive and naturalistic approaches. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1981. [SN, Ev]

This book describes a promising new approach that combines the advantages of responsive evaluation (where assessments are keyed directly to the concerns of those with a stake in the results) and naturalistic methodologies (which grow out of the situation at hand rather than follow a predetermined design).

Egon Guba and Yvonna Lincoln draw on their thirty years of experience in practicing and teaching evaluation to explain the theory and concepts of naturalistic responsive evaluation and set out guidelines for its implementation. They tell how to limit and focus an inquiry and how to ensure the validity, reliability, and objectivity of findings. They describe the interviewing, observation, and communication skills required to produce an effective evaluation, and they detail proven methods of document analysis and unobtrusive measurement. In addition, they lead the reader through the actual steps of performing a naturalistic responsive evaluation--from starting and getting established to identifying key audiences and eliciting their concerns, gathering relevant information, reporting results, and making persuasive recommendations. -- Publisher's blurb.

269. Gump, Paul V. Intra-setting analysis: The third grade classroom as a special but instructive case. In E.P. Williams and H.L. Rausch (Eds.),

Naturalistic viewpoints in psychological research. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1969; pp. 200-270. [S, Cl]

. . . our understanding of teacher effectiveness will be enhanced by paying attention to the ecology of learning, which means viewing the teacher as a manager of the learning activities, format, medium, and props of the classroom system (p. 200).

270. Hackman, J. Richard and G.R. Oldham. Work redesign. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1980. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

The thoughtful "conservative" consultant will . . . come away with a thorough understanding of the pros and cons of a job redesign, as well as a basic outline of how to approach the issue from a sociotechnical systems perspective.

The authors are purposely indefinite about what to do. What they provide is a framework for asking the right questions, along with a set of diagnostic techniques that operationalize some of those questions.

The book has four main parts and a set of questionnaire and technical appendices. The introductory part has three chapters. First, the issue concerning the crisis in work satisfaction is defused. Whether there is a crisis, the authors tell us, depends on one's viewpoint. Their own views are that many, if not most, people in the United States are underutilized at work, that most people can adapt rather well to unenriched work, that self-reports of satisfaction tell one very little, and that changes tend to be resisted. . . .

Part two of the book presents in detail the rationale for and issues in redesigning jobs. Chapter four gives a model of motivation with the same basic assumptions as Herzberg's but with far more detail. . . .

In part three are two chapters concerned with work redesign when the basic work unit is the group rather than the individual. This is where the sociotechnical approach, with its focus on autonomous groups, comes in. The discussion is more general than in the previous section and is more qualified as well. The authors admit to a conservative bias, suggesting that not enough is known about installing redesigned work groups to be comfortable in recommending [them].

Part four has two chapters, one a discussion of installation tactics, the other a broad overview of work redesign as OD and with respect to society. . . . Surprisingly, the authors do not come out in favor of participation, but suggest that participation of workers in job enrichment . . . is probably a good thing in many but not all situations. . . .

Finally, the authors discuss two "routes": fitting jobs to people versus fitting people to jobs. In the 1980s, they assert, we are "at the fork in the road." The former route is the basis of the book: moving organizational responsibility closer to "where the action is"; concern for employee motivation, satisfaction, and growth and development; flatter organizations with fewer managers (who manage differently than is typical today); and the freeing of people entirely from the worst and lowest quality jobs. . . .

In many ways this book is an ideal practitioner resource. . . . Read carefully, qualifying the qualifications, this book will be of great value to any OD practitioner and is strongly recommended. (Reprinted from a review of Marshall Sashkin in Group and Organizational Studies, vol. 7, no. 1, pp. 121-124, copyright 1982 by Sage Publications, Inc., with their permission.)

Work Redesign takes as its central theme that one of the major influences on organizational productivity is the quality of the relationship between people who do the work and the jobs they perform. Though Hackman and Oldham acknowledge the impact on motivation and satisfaction of other organizational characteristics such as job security, compensation, coworkers, and supervision, they stress the importance of the actual work itself as a major determinant of productivity and quality of work life. They use job characteristics theory as the conceptual framework for diagnosing and redesigning the motivation of jobs. The core job characteristics attended to are: skill variety, task identity, and task significance, which lead to experienced meaningfulness of work; autonomy, which leads to experienced responsibility for outcomes of the work; and feedback from the job itself, which leads to knowledge of the actual results of work activities. Thus, jobs high in meaningfulness, responsibility, and feedback increase motivation. This will be modified by the degree of appropriate knowledge and skill the employees possess, their satisfaction with the work context, and their individual needs for growth. -- A.R. Cohen in Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1982, 18(1), 111. Quoted by permission of JAI Press.

See also Kiggundu (1980).

271. Hale, Norman. The management team. Eugene, OR.: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 1975. ERIC Order No. ED 161 112. [S, OrF, Lea, Tea]

A 40-page review of recent research.

272. Hale, Norman. Problem-solving techniques for administrators. School Management Digest, No. 11, 1978. Order No. Ed 151 894 from the Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. [S, Int, OrF, Lea]

A 39-page review of recent research.

273. Hall, Douglas T., Donald D. Bowen, Roy J. Lewicki, and Francine S. Hall. Experiences in management and organizational behavior. (2nd ed.) New York: Wiley, 1982. [N, Int]

Contains exercises.

274. Hall, Gene E. and Susan F. Loucks. A developmental model for determining whether the treatment is actually implemented. American Educational Research Journal, 1977, 14(3), 263-276. [S, Ev]

Concentrating on the Levels of Use dimension, . . . this paper discusses the importance of knowing whether and how an innovation or treatment is being used before evaluating it or conducting research. The Levels of Use of the Innovation dimension is presented as a useful construct for defining and classifying innovation implementation. -- from the Catalog of Publications of the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Austin, Texas.

275. Hall, Jay and Susan M. Donnell. Managerial achievement: The personal side of behavioral theory. Human Relations, 1979, 32(1), 77-101. [N, Lea, Mot]

Five separate studies involving over 12,000 managers were conducted to explore the relationship between personal applications of behavioral science principles and managerial achievement. Managers categorized as High, Average, or Low Achievers according to an objective achievement formula was asked to respond to several standardized survey instruments based on the theories of Argyris, Blake and Mouton, Herzbert, Marrow, Maslow, and McGregor. Subordinate assessments of their manager's practices were also obtained from companion instruments. Multivariate analyses revealed that High, Average, and Low Achieving managers differed significantly--in terms of both self-reports and subordinate appraisals--in those practices circumscribed by our more prominent applied theorists. Moreover, High Achievers were found to behave in ways essentially consistent with the normative thrust of the models cited while Average and Low Achievers violated critical tenets of those models. Results are discussed in terms of the personal implications of applied behavioral science principles vis-a-vis their more typical organizational focus. (authors' abstract)

276. Hall, Jay and Martha S. Williams. Group dynamics training and improved decision making. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1970, 6, 39-67. [N, OrF, OD]

The authors investigated the efficacy of laboratory training in group dynamics as a technique for modifying group processes in the direction of theoretically more effective practices. They found that groups which underwent laboratory training consistently performed more effectively than untrained groups on measure of decision quality, utilization of superior resources, and creativity. -- Maguire, Temkin, and Cummings (1971).

277. Halpin, Andrew W. and Don B. Croft. The organizational climate of schools. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1963. [S, OrF]

The well-known report on the development of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ).

278. Hamilton, David and others (Eds.) Beyond the numbers game. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1977. [S, Ev]

Contains chapters by Atkin on intuition and esthetics, Stenhouse on action research, Scriven on goal-free evaluation, Stake on responsive evaluation, and Popham on behavioral objectives.

279. Hammond, George S. and W. Murray Todd. Technical assistance and foreign policy. Science, 1975, 189(4208), 1507-1509. [N, Int, Lin]

Technical assistance to nations follows a process similar to that of giving assistance to schools. Hammond and Todd say, "The countries of the world simply cannot all manufacture the same things and then try to export them to each other." Similarly, schools cannot all strive for excellence in identical types of education and expect an interchange of ideas to take place. The discussion of technical assistance to groups or organizations within a political sphere can offer us a new way of looking at consulting among schools whose backgrounds and interests are diverse in many respects.

For a similar view of diversity, See P.J. Runkel (in Hopkins and Wideen, Eds., in preparation).

280. Hannan, Michael T. and John H. Freeman. Internal politics of growth and decline. In M.W. Meyer and associates, Environments and organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978; pp. 177-199. [S, OrF]

We find broad differences between growth and decline [in school districts] in all three of the subprocesses studied: (1) Competitive interactions are stronger on average in decline, (2) carrying capacities for most personnel components are lower at a given level of enrollment in decline, and (3) the organizational systems respond more slowly to environmental changes in decline.

. . . the pivotal teaching component behaves differently in growth and decline. We conclude that the results support the broad argument; the politics are different in decline. . . . First, the strength of competitive interactions is stronger in decline. The structure of competitive interactions also changes with administration shifting to a more dominating position. . . . Second, the systems respond more slowly to decline. It is clearly in the narrow interests of each component, but not administratively rational, to resist decline. The fact that response is slow in decline suggests that the personnel components are at least partially successful in enacting these interests (pp. 196-197).

281. Hanson, E. Mark. Organizational control in educational systems: A case study of governance in schools. In S.B. Bacharach (Ed.), Organizational behavior in schools and districts. New York: Praeger, 1981; pp 245-276. [S, OrF]

Some very specific organizational patterns were immediately visible, such as buses coming and going, bells ringing on the hour, football players turning out for practice, lunches being served, meetings being called, roll being taken, and examinations being given. Other patterns took weeks to sort out, such as the struggle by teachers to gain extensive participation in the selection of new administrators, the drive to improve the testing program, or the struggle to obtain greater support and resources for specific academic programs.

In short, . . . we found a mixed bag of structured and unstructured activity, formal and informal procedures, and controlled and autonomous behavior (p. 253).

The subcoalitions seem to share with one another only those ambiguous goals which act as public flags with great symbolic value. Goals such as "to develop an awareness of the values inherent in our democratic society and loyalty to its underlying principles" serve as symbolic cement which holds the organization together (p. 261).

Unlike the formal subcoalitions, the informal systems had an ebb-and-flow quality about them. For a time an informal subcoalition would be highly visible, influential, and active; and then drop from sight only to return again at a later date. Informal subcoalitions seemed to emerge where formal subcoalitions were unwilling, unprepared, unstructured, or unauthorized to serve as the advocate or problem solving vehicle for a troublesome issue (p. 263).

The negotiaitons in schools are informal rather than formal and virtually everyone participates when their interests are involved. When a troublesome situation arises for an individual or group, they seek to spin a network of negotiation around it. Teachers negotiated with administrators for a different approach to handling tough discipline cases, administrators negotiated with teachers for more parent contact, students negotiated with teachers for less homework, . . . and so on (p. 269). Reprinted by permission of the publisher from S.B. Bacharach (Ed.), Organizational behavior in schools and districts. Copyright 1982 by Praeger, New York.

282. Hanson, Ralph A. and Richard E. Schutz. A new look at schooling effects from programmatic research and development. In D. Mann (Ed.), Making change happen? New York: Teachers College Press, 1978; pp. 120-149. [S, Ef, Int]

See Mann (1978) for annotation.

283. Harrison, Roger. Group composition models for laboratory design. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1965, 1, 409-432. [N, Mot]

Describes the ways certain emotional needs of individuals can combine with those of others in groups so as to help or hinder the work of the group. If an individual has usually guided his or her interactions with others primarily by one dimension (such as power), he or she will have difficulty acting according to another dimension (such as affilitation) unless he or she first tries acting at the other end of the dimension customarily used; that is, a person who usually tries to dominate others should first try being submissive--then he or she would be better able to conceive how affiliation differs from dominance.

284. Harrison, Roger. Choosing the depth of organizational intervention. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1970, 6(2), 181-202. [N, Int]

Describes five psychological depths to which an intervention can try to reach: rational assignment of tasks, direct influence on performance, direct influence on the interpersonal interactions through which work is accomplished, interpersonal emotional rearrangements, and therapy. Describes appropriate uses of them.

285. Harrison, Roger. Role negotiation: A tough-minded approach to team development. In W.W. Burke and H.A. Hornstein (Eds.), The social technology of organization development. Fairfax, VA: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1972; 84-96. Also in W.G. Bennis and others (Eds.), Interpersonal dynamics. (3rd ed.) Homewood, IL: Dorsey, 1973; pp. 467-479. Another version appears in R.T. Golembiewski and W.B. Eddy (Eds.), Organization development in public administration, Part 2. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1978. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

Lays out steps and cautions.

286. Harrison, Roger. A practical model of motivation and character development. In J.E. Jones and J.W. Pfeiffer (Eds.), 1979 annual handbook for group facilitators. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1979; pp. 207-220. [N, OrF, Lea, Mot]

Development follows the patterns outlined below.

Away from:	Toward:
seeking tangible, concrete incentives and satifiers	seeking abstract, intangible, and symbolic incentives and satisfiers
needs experienced as deficiencies that must be filled up or replenished from outside the person	needs experienced as pressures arising within the person to utilize talents and resources in creating and contributing
control of behavior by others through application of rewards, punishments, and external values and standards	control of behavior by the self through the operation of the self-concept and internal values and standards, and resistance to external control by means of incentives and standards
similarity between members of a given culture in the ways needs are experienced and expressed	differentiation and individuation in the ways needs are experienced and expressed

emotional response to incentives and satisfiers, rewards, and punishments as ends in themselves to be sought or avoided	rational, instrumental response to incentives and satisfiers, rewards, and punishments as means to higher ends or as problems to be solved in the pursuit of higher goals

Throughout the process of development, at each level (sustenance, self-definition, and generativity) the individual moves back and forth between the opposite poles of separation (*being as oneself*) and unification (*being as a part*). The interaction between the level of development and the polarities of orientation defines six developmental modes: *unsocialized* (sustenance-separation); *dependency* (sustenance-unification); *competition* (self-definition-separation); *mutuality* (self-definition-unification); *independence* (generativity-separation); and *compassion* (generativity-unification) (pp. 209-210).

For connections with other writers on motives, see Schmuck and Runkel (1982). For still other writings on motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

287. Harrison, Roger and Jim Kouzes. The power potential of organization development. *Training and Development Journal*, April 1980, 44-47. [SN, Int, Mot, OD]

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for annotation.

288. Harvey, Donald F., and Donald R. Brown. *An experiential approach to organizational development*. (2nd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1982. [N, Int, OD]

Contains exercises.

289. Hatley, Richard V. and Michael J. Tull. Effects of organization development of teacher effectiveness and teacher-student relationships. *Southern Journal of Educational Research*, 1978, 12(3), 125-150. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OD]

Results indicated that an educational system's instructional function can be improved through application of behavioral science technologies using reflexive, self-analytic methods characteristic of organizational development intervention, which emphasizes the human dimension of organizations. (authors' abstract)

290. Hatvany, Nina and Vladimir Pucik. Japanese management practices and productivity. *Organizational Dynamics*, 1981, 9(4), 4-21. [N, OrF, Mot]

In examining why Japan's manufacturing productivity has outstripped that of the United States, the authors focus on Japanese management practices as they affect one key company asset: human resources. The Japanese companies' contention that, in the long run, human assets are the most important, profitable ones of all is not mere rhetoric; the concept is backed up by a well-integrated system of strategies and techniques that translate it into reality. Their strategies, for example, include (1) providing long-term, secure employment that attracts employees of the quality desired and induces them to remain with a firm; (2) espousing and demonstrating concern for both employee needs and the importance of teamwork; (3) searching out new hires with values that fit well with those of the company and maintaining close ties thereafter between employees and the company.

Specific techniques emphasize continuous development of employee skills, with formal promotion of secondary importance--early in a career, at least; employee evaluation that often focuses on group performance results rather than individual, "bottom line" results; work structured for groups operating with much autonomy; and open communication, with widespread information on pending decisions before the decisions are actually made. In demonstrating the relationship between this system and such positive outcomes as employee commitment and productivity, the authors marshal evidence to suggest that it can be successfully transferred to the United States. -- abstract by editors of Organizational Dynamics. Reprinted, by permission of the publisher, from Nina Hatvany and Vladimir Pucik, Japanese management practices and productivity, Organizational Dynamics, 1981, vol. 9, copyright 1981 by AMACOM, a division of American Management Associations, New York. All rights reserved.

291. Havelock, Ronald G. The change agent's guide to innovation in education. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications, 1973. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

.. . . the client system should be analyzed for its norms, leaders, informal leadership, gatekeepers, and elements with which the agent can most effectively work. The larger social environment also should be analyzed for its norms, quality of leadership, influential persons, and potential involvement in the change program. . . . Disadvantages of the outsider are advantages of the insider: being an unfamiliar figure, lacking inside information, being unfamiliar with the system's goals and aspirations. Advantages of the outsider are the disadvantages of the insider: having independence of movement and relationships, having a new perspective, having special skills, and having a fresh start. In the best relationships between client and change agent there is reciprocity, openness, realistic expectation, well defined structure, shared power, and minimum threat. A danger to change exists if there is a history of unresponsiveness, an attempt to use the agent as a pawn, a prior commitment by the client to a position, or an incapacity of the client. -- NIMH (1971).

Three approaches to diagnose for change are described and purposes for diagnosis are thoroughly reviewed. Good suggestions offered to help change agents gain acceptance for the innovation and to disengage from the client.

292. Havelock, Ronald G. Resource linkage in innovative educational problem solving: Ideal vs. actual. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1973, 6(4), 76-87. [S, Int, Lin]

This article reviews Havelock's theory of linkage and presents empirical findings from a national survey in which an attempt was made to assess the current status of innovation in school districts, comparing ideal and theoretical formulations with comtemporary reality (p. 76).

293. Havelock, Ronald G. and Mary C. Havelock. Training for change agents: A guide to the design of training programs in education and other fields. Ann Arbor, MI: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, 1976. [SN, Int, OrF, Lin]

Major issues related to training in the process of change and the utilization of knowledge resources are analyzed from a number of perspectives, and alternative team and individual training models are suggested for use in different settings. The focus is training for the specialist role of process-helping change agent and resource-utilization consultant.

294. Havelock, Ronald G., Janet C. Huber, and Shaindel Zimmerman. Major works on change in education: An annotated bibliography with author and subject indices. Ann Arbor, MI: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, 1969. [S, Int, Bib]

295. Havelock, Ronald G, and others. Knowledge utilization and dissemination: A bibliography. Ann Arbor, MI: Center for Research on Utilization of Scientific Knowledge, 1972. (revised printing) [SN, Int, Lin, Bib]

This bibliography contains an alphabetical listing of over 4,000 entries relevant to the communication and adoption of innovations, planned change, dissemination, scientific knowledge transfer, and utilization.

296. Hawley, Willis D. Horses before carts: Developing adaptive schools and the limits of innovation. In D. Mann (Ed.), Making change happen? New York: Teachers College Press, 1978; pp. 224-260. [S, Int, OrF]

See Mann (1978) for annotation.

297. Hechinger, Grace and Fred. Are schools better in other countries? American Education, 1974, January-February, 6-8. Reprinted in A.J. Newman (Ed.), In defense of the American public school. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1978; pp. 68-73. [S, Ef]

Briefly reviews the study by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement. Argues that the data show that U.S. schools are doing very well in many respects, especially in view of the fact that we put a much larger proportion of youth through high school than do other countries.

298. Hedberg, Bo L.T., Paul C. Nystrom, and William H. Starbuck. Camping on seesaws: Prescriptions for a self-designing organization. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1976,21(1), 41-65. [N, Int, OrF]

This article prescribes how an organization can be designed to meet social and technological changes and to reap advantage from them. Long-term viability maximizes in a self-designing organization, in which those who perform activities take primary responsibility for learning and for inventing new methods, and in which nonparticipant designers restrict themselves to a catalytic role. (authors' abstract)

Headings: Why designers should help other people erect an organizational tent. How programs tether an organization to its environment. How to convert a crisis into a lethal tragedy and occasionally survive. How an organization can fly without flying apart. How to recognize flyable seesaws.

299. Herrick, H. Scott. The relationship of organizational structure to teacher motivation in multiunit and non-multiunit elementary schools. Tehnical Report No. 322. Madison, WI: Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, 1973. [S, OrF, Mot]

This study examines the relationship of organizational variables to teacher motivation. It seeks to determine what differences, if any, exist between the organizational structures of multi-unit (MUS) and non-multiunit (NMUS) individually guided education (IGE) elementary schools. . . . Results of this study suggest that administrators interested in developing higher levels of teacher motivation should make every effort to involve teachers in the decisionmaking process and that they should attempt to distribute rewards to teachers fairly and justly. (authors' abstract)

300. Herriott, Robert E. and Neal Gross (Eds.) The dynamics of planned educational change. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1979. [S, Int, Env, Lin]

A collection of papers, some describing various aspects of five change projects funded by the Experimental Schools program of the National Institute of Education and some drawing lessons from the experience. Part I contains two chapters of introduction. Part II contains a chapter describing the connection of NIE with the projects and five chapters of case studies. Part III contains five chapters of interpretations and recommendations. Part IV consists of a chapter on theoretical and practical implications.

301. Hersey, Paul and Kenneth H. Blanchard. Management of organizational behavior: Utilizing human resources. (3rd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1977. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

A widely-used text using the rationale of organizational development. Includes their theory of leadership: that the appropriateness of the leader's behavior depends on the "task maturity" of the followers at any given time for any specific task.

See also Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard. Leader effectiveness and adaptability description (LEAD). In J.W. Pfeiffer and J.E. Jones (Eds.), The 1976 annual handbook for group facilitators. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1976; pp. 87-99.

302. Hess, Fritz and Gerald Greenstein. Organizational development: An idea whose time has come. Educational Technology, 1972, 12(10), 57-59. [S, Int, OD]

In this article, we have been asked to consider the applicability of organizational development to the public schools. We will also address ourselves to the general problems faced in bringing OD to the schools and the specific difficulties encountered in initiating the process in our own school district (p. 57).

303. Hickey, Michael E. Optimum school district size. Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 1969. ERIC Order No. ED 035 108. [S, OrF, Env]

A 40-page review of research.

304. Hickson, D.J. A convergence in organization theory. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1966, 11, 224-237. [N, OrF, Mot]

Hickson finds that dozens of writers on organization structure put a great deal of attention on the specificity of role prescription. Weber, Taylor, and others assert that when roles in an organization show high specificity, confusion is reduced. Likert, McGregor, Argyris, and others claim that lower specificity of role prescription is more motivating than higher specificity. Bennis, Burns and Stalker, and others believe that lower specificity gives rise to more innovation. Presthus and others find lower specificity producing anxiety, and Crozier, Litwak, and others assert that lower specificity produces power conflicts.

Hickson proposes some hypotheses, including: ". . . if innovation is associated with low specificity, then the underlying individual creativity must not only survive conditions of anxiety and power conflict but even derive stimulation from them."

For other writings on control of own work and other motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

305. Hilfiker, Leo R. Factors relating to the innovativeness of school systems. Journal of Educational Research, 1970, 64, 23-27. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

It was found that the following independent variables were significantly related to the school system innovativeness: (1) social support provided by the principal as perceived by the professional personnel: (2) the perceived problem-solving adequacy of staff meetings; (3)

satisfaction with the amount of time devoted to problem solving in staff meetings; (4) perceived powerlessness in system faculty and administrative council meetings; and (5) openness and trust as interpersonal norms of the system as perceived by professional personnel. -- Maguire, Temkin, and Cummings (1971).

Reports correlations between innovativeness and answers to the Staff Meetings Questionnaire developed by COPED. For other reports from COPED or from projects using COPED's questionnaires, see COPED (1970), Luke and Mial (1971), Manno (1969), Schmuck and Runkel (1970), Thomas Stephens (1974), and Goodwin Watson (1967).

For other writings on powerlessness and similar motive satisfactions, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

306. Hirschman, Albert O. Exit, voice, and loyalty. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1970. [SN, OrF, Env]

When people are dissatisfied with an organization, they can exit, or they can use their voices to try to change things. Economists usually think only of the exit option--quit being a customer, or if you don't like your job, find another. Politicians usually think only of the voice option--vote, write to your congressman, etc. What are the choices for people connected with schools?

307. Hodgkinson, Harold. What's right with education. Phi Delta Kappan, 1979, 61(3), 159-162. [S, Ef]

Compares success of American schooling with medicine, law, and European schooling. Compares the public's confidence in schools with its confidence in other governmental services. Cites trends in completion of high school. Quotes The enduring Effects of Education. Cites evidence about physiological effects on learning. Cites evidence on effects of Head Start. Says that among "those who go on to college, preparation for college by the public schools has not declined in quality" (p. 161). "Generally, we have now succeeded with an educational agenda, kindergarten through college, for the 'top half.' . . . No other nation has carried such a high percentage of its citizens so far. In the next decade the agenda may well shift to the 'bottom half'" (p. 162).

308. Hoffman, L. Richard. The group problem-solving process. New York: Praeger, 1979. [N, OrF]

It will be informative for those at an advanced level in the study of group decision making and problem solving, and it will likely prove a spur to further research. This is abetted by inclusion of the appendixes describing the problems used as stimuli for groups and the valence coding system. The book also provides a lesson in what we can and cannot learn with traditional laboratory methodology for studying group dynamics. -- Contemporary Psychology.

309. Holmberg, Allan R., Mario C. Vazquez, Paul C. Doughty, J. Oscar Alers, Henry F. Dobyns, and Harold D. Lasswell. The transformation of the political, legal, and social systems of suppressed peasant societies: The Vicos case. American Behavioral Scientist, 1965, 8(7). [N, Int, OrF, Env]

Describes the Vicos project in Peru, in which a social pattern four centuries old was altered in five years or so to a modern social system. See also J. Collier and M. Collier. An experiment in applied anthropology. Scientific American, 1957, 196(1), 37-45.

310. Horn, Robert E. and Anne Cleaves (Eds.). The guide to simulations and games for education and training. (4th ed.) Beverly Hills: Sage, 1980. [SN, Int]

311. House, Ernest R. (Ed.) School evaluation: The politics and process. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1973. [S, Ev]

The major theme of the book is the political nature of evaluation. Contrary to common belief, evaluation is not the ultimate arbiter, delivered from pure objectivity and accepted as the final judgement. . . . when someone wants to defend something or to attack something, he often evaluates it. . . . Likewise, the way in which the results of an evaluation are accepted depends on whether they help or hinder the person receiving them. . . .

A second theme is that both one's administration and one's evaluation are intimately related to whether one believes that the goals of the class, school, district, state, or nation are already established or are yet to be arrived at through negotiation between groups. . . .

A third theme is the relationship between decision making and evaluation: the delicate relationship between the administrator and the evaluator. . . . -- from the Prologue.

312. House, Ernest R. The politics of educational innovation. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1974. [S, Int, OrF, Env]

Based on empirical research, this book provides a unique and provocative view of educational innovation. It deals with the total sweep of innovation--where it originates, how it spreads among practitioners, and what its consequences are for the internal workings of the school. Particular emphasis is placed on how the internal political and social structures of the school respond to innovations and on how the school relates to larger social and institutional networks. The book is developed on the theme that most innovation is dependent on face-to-face personal contacts and that these contacts condition the frequency and occurrence of innovation. The author argues that the political and economic structure of the school allows only certain types of activities and prohibits others. Entrepreneurship (an advocate working within the system) is required to overcome the rigid internal structure if an innovation is to succeed. This results in other problems, particularly stemming from those excluded. The author provides ample concrete illustrations throughout, drawing examples from two major innovations in order to enhance the continuity of the arguments, -- Publisher's blurb.

313. House, Ernest R. Justice in evaluation. In G.V. Glass (Ed.), Evaluation Studies Review Annual (Vol. I). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1976. [SN, Ev]

Justice-as-fairness is strong, explicit, deep in philosophic justification, and congruent with every rational person being free to pursue his own plural goals, subject to being fair to others as morally equal begins. It is a manifestation of democratic equality (p. 23).

Outlines the prevalent conception of justice in evaluation based on utilitarian ethics and points out the deficiencies of this scheme. Contrasts utilitarian ethics with pluralist-intuitionist approaches, and argues that justice-as-fairness seems clearly superior to the utilitarian ideas and more nearly equal to the intuitive theory.

314. House, Ernest R. Evaluating with validity. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1980. [SN, Ev, Env]

The current evaluation scene is marked by vitality and disorder. The scale, ubiquity, and diversity of evaluation activities make comprehension difficult, even for those operating within the field. More alarmingly, a bad evaluation can deface a social program and injure an entire social class. The social import of evaluation is enormous; its self-understanding relatively minute. It is hoped that this book will contribute to a more complete and translucent conceptual order and to a stronger sense of moral resonsibility (p. 11).

Presents conceptions, standards, principles, and criticisms of modern practice in evaluation.

315. House, Robert J. and Lawrence A. Wigdor. Herzberg's dual-factor theory of job satisfaction and motivation: A review of the evidence and a criticism. Personnel Psychology, 1967, 20(4), 369-389. [N, Mot]

The dual factor theory of job satisfaction is evaluated on methodological and factual grounds in a review of the literature. Results are contrary to the proposition that satisifiers and dissatisfiers are unidimensional and independent. It is concluded that the 2-factor theory is an oversimplification of the relationships between motivation and satisfaction. (abstract from ERIC data base)

316. Hovenier, Peter Jacob. Changing the behavior of social studies department heads through the use of feedback. Doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1966. [S, Int, OrF]

The main question was, Can the behavior of social studies department heads be changed by informing them of how their own teachers describe the behavior of their actual department head and their ideal chairman?

The results suggest that the method of feedback of teacher ratings to social studies chairmen posseses promise. Social studies chairmen who received feedback were closer on the posttest to perceptions of an ideal chairman than were those who did not receive feedback. But this approach to changing behavior needs refinement. (excerpted from the author's abstract)

For similar studies, see Burns (1977), Daw and Gage (1967), Gage, Runkel, and Chartterjee (1963), Margaret Nelson (1972), Schmuck (1973), and Tuckman, McCall, and Hyman (1969).

317. Howes, Nancy J. Change factors related to the institutionalization of the multiunit elementary school. Doctoral dissertation, Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1974. [S, Int, OrF]

Five descriptive organizational change questionnaires were designed and distributed to a selected national sample of over 2000 unit teachers, unit leaders, principals, district coordinators, and superintendents in multiunit schools and school districts. The change variables found to affect institutionalization were open and supportive environments, user's liking for MUS-E [the organization of the multiunit elementary school], user's cost-benefit decision, use of open communication channels, supportive services and resources, and flexibility of the change process. The variables of change directly related to the institutionalization of MUS-E were: (1) the perceived relative advantage, observability, and simplicity of MUS-E; (2) the degree to which the individual was informed, involved, and supported in the change process; (3) the way and degree to which the school organization was complex and less formalized. (author's abstract)

318. Hughes, Larry W. Organizational climate--another dimension to the process of innovation? Educational Administration Quarterly, 1968, 4(3), 17-28. [S, Int, OrF]

The central office staff of 11 "highly innovative" and 13 "non-innovative" school districts were given the Organizational Climate Descriptive Questionnaire (Halpin and Croft) to determine whether the two types of districts differed in any of the eight elements of climate. Innovative districts were found to be significantly less "disengaged" and to have a significantly higher "esprit." Superintendents in these districts revealed a significantly higher score on the element "thrust." Innovative school districts exhibited a more "open" climate and expended more money per pupil than did non-innovative districts.

319. Human Interaction Research Institute. Putting knowledge to use: A distillation of the literature regarding knowledge transfer and change. Los Angeles: Author, 1976. [SN, Int, Lin]

To be effective, consultants or linking agents should be prepared to work locally and long, involve local people in planning and monitoring, and be ready for mutual adaptation with the client.

320. Huse, Edgar F. *Organization development and change*. (2nd ed.) St. Paul, MN: West, 1980. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

A comprehensive textbook.

321. Hyman, Herbert H., Charles R. Wright, and John Shelton Reed. *The enduring effects of education*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press, 1975. [S, Ef]

Recent critiques of education have challenged the traditional assumption that education imparts knowledge and leaves the student receptive to further knowledge after schooling ends. This book presents the reassuring results of a long-term study which shows that the retention of knowledge, either academic or popular, and the continued propensity to seek new knowledge are directly related to the number of years spent in school.

Some three hundred measures of knowledge and information-seeking were analyzed at four life stages of subjects between the ages of twenty-five and seventy-two, for each of four contrasting time periods. Respondents' knowledge of facts as diverse as the winner of the (most recent) World Series and the party holding a congressional majority were subjected to statistical analysis. Controls over the major discriminatory characteristics (age, sex, class, etc.) were introduced to isolate the net effects of education. -- Publisher's blurb.

322. Inabnit, Darrel James. Characteristics of teacher participation in decision-making functions of public-school administration: An empirical investigation of teacher participation in policy making and related factors in four Illinois public school systems. Doctoral dissertation, University of Illinois, 1954. [S, Cl, OrF]

[Some] conclusions of the study were: (A) The amount of teacher participation in decision-making is not necessarily related to teacher satisfaction or teacher effectiveness in classroom operation. . . . (C) The subject matter of decision, that is, the . . . problem areas in which teachers participated, was related to (1) the amount of teacher activity in participation, (2) the extent to which teachers perceived that they were given responsibility in participation in decision-making, (3) the extent to which teachers reported that they interacted with centers of authority in the school organization, and (4) the extent to which teachers sensed that their participation influenced the final decision (pp. 144-146).

323. Institute for Social Research (University of Michigan) and Rensis Likert Associates. *Survey of Organizations*. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1980. [N, Ev, OrF]

Contains subsets of questions assessing dimensions of organizational climate, supervisory leadership, peer relationships, group functioning, job characteristics, and satisfation.

See review by R.T. Golembiewski in Group and Organizational Studies, 1981, 6(2), 247-255.

324. Iscoe, Ira. Community psychology and the competent community. American Psychologist, 1974, 29(8), 607-613. [N, Int, Env]

Some useful advice on reaching the disadvantaged community.

325. Ishikawa, Akihiro. A survey of studies in the Japanese style of management. Economic and Industrial Democracy, 1982, 3(1), 1-15. [N, OrF]

Recent studies have contained a number of references to the Japanese style of management, showing keen interest in the high development of Japanese economy and technology. Most studies seem to exaggerate the peculiarity of Japanese culture and the harmonious character of intra-company relations. This paper surveys the main works on Japanese management written by Japanese authors during the last thirty years, reflecting upon their methodologies. It shows that the recent discussions have largely neglected the historical and macrostructural viewpoint as well as the critical view of power and authority in industry developed in previous research. (author's abstract)

326. Jackson, Donald A., Gabriel DellaPiana, and Howard N. Sloane, Jr. How to establish a behavior observation system. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology, 1975. [SN, Ev]

This is a self-instructional manual intended for training teachers, teachers' aides, child-care givers, medical workers, and others who receive training in methods of establishing observational systems. It would be useful in a wide range of training situations in which a systematic approach to observing and recording human behavior is desirable. -- L. Krasner in Contemporary Psychology, 1976, 21(6), 444.

327. Jackson, Philip W. Life in classrooms. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1968. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

The book was written with one significant feature of a child's early life in mind: institutional membership. Adults spend most of their waking hours coping with the demands of institutional life, and school is where it all begins. Professor Jackson emphasizes the early years of schooling. . . . The school's abrasive qualities as a social institution are considered at length. The classroom experience is emphasized, especially where conditions impose stresses and strains on both teacher and student. . . . Four unpublicized features of school life are described in detail: delay, denial, interruptions, and social distraction. There is a discussion of the evaluative climate of the classroom and the caste-like status structure governing the flow of power between teachers and students. These features comprise a "hidden curriculum" that each pupil must master if he is to make his way in school. -- Publisher's blurb.

For other writings on the satisfaction of motives in the classroom and elsewhere, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

328. Jamieson, David W. Organizational change and development in schools: An assessment of a structural-process strategy for redesigning and developing the management system. Doctoral dissertation, University of California at Los Angeles, 1976. [S, Int, OrF, Tea, OD, Bib]

Reports a project undertaken with six junior high schools in southern California in which consultants aided the schools in changing their management patterns. Alterations, planned and agreed upon in advance, were made in the jobs of principals, assistant principals (APs), counselors, and departmental chairpersons. Most of the actual facilitation of the change was done by APs from other schools who had been participants in an earlier project similar to this one. They became consultants to the four experimental schools in this study. The AP-consultants, however, did receive training from the outside consultants in two three-hour workshops before the intervention and in two "clinics" conducted during the intervention.

In interviews, APs in the experimental schools did indeed report broadened responsibilities and realigned duties, including a drop in time devoted to disciplinary matters.

Other variables were assessed by clusters of questionnaire items. Goal clarity, role clarity, and participation in decision making all increased significantly in the experimental schools, not in the control schools. On ease of achieving joint effort between persons in different roles, questionnaire results showed improvements in the experimental schools on all possible pair-wise comparisons among principals, APs, counselors, departmental chairpersons, and teachers, with the most significant improvements occurring between counselors and teachers and between counselors and departmental chairpersons.

329. Jaques, Elliott. Essential developments in bureaucracy in the 1980s. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1980, 16(3), 439-447. [N, OrF, Env]

A systematic solution has been formulated to [the] chronic problem of how many working levels there should be in a bureaucratic hierarchy. It derives from the measure of time-span described above. With this measure and with the above definition of managerial roles, it has been found (and in over 20 different countries) that to have true manager-subordinate relationships it is necessary to organize on the basis of the following steps:

Stratum One--up to 3 months time-span
Stratum Two--3 months to 1 year time-span
Stratum Three--1 year to 2 years time-span
Stratum Four--2 years to 5 years time-span

Stratum Five--5 years to 10 years time-span
Stratum Six--above 10 years time-span (p. 444).

I believe that the 1980s will prove historically to be a critical decade in which the democratic industrial world will either learn to come to grips with the reality of bureaucracy or sink into a continuous state of inordinate suffering from social and economic conflict induced by tension within the bureaucratic sector. The final effect of failure to cope with this chronic unrest will be a relapse into corporate state autocracy either of the right or of the left.

The social sciences could have a crucial part to play in helping to overcome these problems. Unfortunately, they are unlikely to do so. My doubts arise from the fact that we are in such conceptual disarray. Examine the picture. There is not one single concept in the whole field of bureaucracy . . . that is systematically usable in the sense that here is sufficient consensus about meaning to make it possible . . . to observe and describe phenomena, to formulate propositions, and to communicate and test findings and propositions. . . .

In the first place, there is no agreed-upon conception of bureaucracy itself: Does it refer to red tape? or to government service? or to degree of institutionalization of rules and regulations? or to a particular type of institution? Then look at the issues I have touched upon: manager-subordinate role relationships--the meaning nowhere established and the problem of managerial authority evaded; other role relationships hardly mentioned; participation--a mass of conflicting meanings mixed up together with consultation, two-way talk between managers and immediate subordinates, functionally autonomous work groups, leadership style, and other things besides. . . .

Economic theory in this area has been outstandingly misleading. So too is a common emphasis which argues that the problems of bureaucracy are derived mainly from interpersonal stress and can be overcome by personal therapy and group and leadership training. . . (pp. 445-446). (Quoted by permission of JAI Press.)

330. Jencks, Christopher, Marshall Smith, Henry Acland, Mary Jo Bane, David Cohen, Herbert Gintis, Barbara Heyns, and Stephan Michelson. Inequality: A reassessment of the effect of family and schooling in America. New York: Basic books, 1972. [S, Ef, Env]

Following are excerpts from a symposium review in American Educational Research Journal, 1974, 11(2), 149-175. Copyright 1974, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C.

The book is really two books. The first consists of the results of the reanalysis of data gathered by others, such as the Equality of Educational Opportunity data (Coleman et al., 1966), the Project Talent data (Flanagan et al., 1962), the American Occupational Structure data (Duncan et al., 1968), and data from other studies too numerous to enumerate. . . . The second book is the authors' rhetoric. . . . a number of negative critical comments. . . pale into insignificance when compared to the laudable features. . . . It deserves to be read by all educational-behavioral scientists. . . . -- Lyle F. Schoenfeldt.

It is disappointing . . . to discover that the authors have not permitted their awareness of the frailities in the evidence to temper their conclusions sufficiently or to deter them from making sweeping generalizations about the "policy implications" of the findings. . . . Despite its limitations, Inequality represents a very scholarly and sophisticated treatment of the diverse literature on family background, IQ, schooling, occupational status, and income. -- Alexander W. Astin.

In the United States, inequality of educational opportunity is not the major component of inequality in the distribution of occupational status or of income. . . . In summary, the text of Inequality gives a rather loose interpretation of the analysis of occupational status and income in Appendix B. . . . [But] we expect that the thesis of Inequality--that social inequality is far more extensive than equality of opportunity--will gain in acceptance even as we obtain better estimates of the effects of family, ability, and schooling. -- Robert M. Hauser and Peter J. Dickinson.

331. Jennings, Wayne and Joe Nathan. Startling and disturbing research on school program effectiveness. Phi Delta Kappan, 1977, 58(7), 568-572. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

This summary of research dating back to the Eight-Year Study argues that experimental programs embodying Deweyan concepts have enormous advantages over the traditional. It raises further questions about the so-called back-to-basics movement. -- Editor's introduction.

332. Johnson, David W. Conflict management in the school and classroom. In D. Bar-Tal and L. Saxe (Eds.), Social psychology of education: Theory and research. Washington, DC: Hempisphere (distributed by Wiley), 1978; pp. 299-326. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Mot]

Schools will never eradicate conflict, but through encouraging controversies and the skillful negotiation of conflicts of interest, the destructiveness currently resulting from conflicts within many schools can be greatly reduced. Through training students and school personnel in constructive argumentation and negotiating, conflicts can be a source of growth, excitement, learning, and creativity (p. 320).

333. Johnson, David W. Human relations and your career: A guide to interpersonal skills. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1978. [S, Cl, Ef, Int]

This is a book to be used, not a book to be read. [It] is an engaging classroom text for students in junior and senior high school who are interested in developing interpersonal skills and increasing their understanding of the world of work. Each of the 13 chapters begins with a pretest introducing concepts to be developed and contains one or more activities, discussions, or practice opportunities for use by small groups of students. At the close of each of the six sections, the student is asked to commit to learning contracts containing individual statements of learnings and action plans with provisions for follow-up.

The format is attractive and will probably capture the attention of young students who believe they have something to learn about cooperating and leading, communicating, forming relationships, making conflicts beneficial, and other interpersonal skills that Johnson presents as *job survival skills*. -- J.J. Sherwood and F.M. Hoylman in *Contemporary Psychology*, 1980, 25(2), 192-193.

334. Johnson, David W. *Reaching out: Interpersonal effectiveness and self-actualization.* (2nd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1982. [SN, Int]

Contains exercises.

335. Johnson, David W. and Frank P. Johnson. *Joining together: Group theory and group skills.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1972. [SN, Int, OD]

Joining Together has a dual purpose: first, to develop an understanding of group dynamics and the need for effective group skills; and second, to train young people to "join together" as active group participants by applying the new resources and methods that they acquire. Encouraging the formation of the individual's own conclusions and ideas, this text is designed so that the student can be aware of changes and growth in his personal behavior. -- Publisher's blurb.

336. Johnson, David W. and Roger T. Johnson. *Learning together and alone: Cooperation, competition, and individualization.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1975. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

Drawing on their years of experience in classroom teaching and their backgrounds in social psychology, the authors describe various classroom situations and goals, and discuss whether an individualistic, cooperative, or competitive structure is best for specific purposes. They clearly demonstrate how to select the appropriate goal structure, how to implement it (including many practical suggestions for classroom activities), and how to evaluate its effectiveness, both in cognitive and affective outcomes. -- Publisher's blurb.

Appendix A is a version of an earlier review of research: D.W. Johnson and R.T. Johnson. Instructional goal structure: Cooperative, competitive, or individualistic. *Review of Educational Research*, 1977, 44(2), 213-240.

See also D.W. Johnson and R.T. Johnson. Cooperative, competitive, and individualistic learning. *Journal of Research and Development in Education*, 1978, 12(1), 3-15.

337. Johnson, David W., Geoffrey Maruyama, Roger T. Johnson, Deborah Nelson, and Linda Skon. Effects of cooperative, competitive and individualistic goal structures on achievement: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 1981, 89(1), 47-62. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Mot]

We reviewed 122 studies and compared the relative effectiveness of cooperation, cooperation with intergroup competition, interpersonal competition, and individualistic goal structures in promoting achievement and productivity in North American samples. These studies yielded 286 findings. Three meta-analysis procedures were used: voting method, effect-size method, and z-score method. The results of the meta-analyses indicate (a) that cooperation is considerably more effective than interpersonal competition and individualistic efforts, (b) that cooperation with intergroup competition is also superior to interpersonal competition and individualistic efforts, and (c) that there is no significant difference between interpersonal competitive and individualistic efforts. Through multiple regression, a number of potentially mediating variables for these results are identified. (authors' abstract)

338. Jones, John E. A case study of a selected elementary school under conditions of planned change. In W.W. Charters, Jr. and others, The process of planned change in the school's instructional organization. Eugene, OR: Center for Policy and Management, 1973; pp. 53-65. [S, Int, OrF]

A case study of a selected elementary school organization under conditions of planned change. The school staff was implementing differentiated staffing and other related new forms of organization such as individualized instruction and modular scheduling.

Major barriers to the change effort were . . . (1) a lack of change agent leadership, (2) a lack of understanding of the planned change, (3) the implementation capacity of the participants, (4) the demands of time, (5) the demands for new role behaviors, . . . [and] (6) a [need] to participate in training activities specifically designed to overcome deficiencies that would inhibit implementation of the planned change. Further, it should be noted that: (7) preparation of structural changes . . . do not necessarily lead to new role behaviors needed to implement planned change, (8) adequate planning and preparation time must be allowed if planned change is to be implemented, (9) new people must receive adequate training before they are brought into the implementation setting, (10) when outside assistance is needed, it must be selected on the basis of relevancy to the staff's requirements in implementing the planned change, [and] (11) the severe overload created by implementing a planned change must be recognized by all concerned and appropriate adjustments must be made. (author's abstract)

339. Jones, John E. Bibliography and reference information on differentiated staffing. Eugene, OR : Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1975. ERIC order number ED 114 992. Available in photocopy from the Center. [S, OrF, Bib]

Contains 355 entries. An introductory section gives statistics on different sources and types of entries. Entries include texts, articles, school district reports, dissertations, and other categories.

340. Kunungo, R.N. (Ed.) Work alienation and involvement: Problems and prospects. *International Review of Applied Psychology*, 1981, 30, 1-120. [SN, OrF, Mot]

This special issue . . . consists of six articles dealing with various aspects of job involvement and the other side of the coin--work alienation. . . . S.D. Saleh . . . argues that job involvement is best understood as a self-involving attitude stemming from self theory and is different, both conceptually and operationally, from job satisfaction and motivation. . . . S. Rabinowitz reports on a longitudinal study of the potential predictors of job involvement among high school students. The two most potent predictors were involvement in high school extracurricular activities and school grades. A negative relationship exists between job satisfaction and job involvement, and this is also explained in terms of self theory. When people are highly involved and their self-images are reflected in their jobs, it is likely that their job satisfaction will be low. . . . U. Sekaran and R.T. Mowday report on a comparison of a large sample of U.S. and Indian workers with regard to job involvement and job characteristics. Although both personal-demographic and job characteristics were associated with job involvement, the most striking finding was that job characteristics were more important than personal-demographic factors in influencing job involvement. . . . F.E. Saal presents an empirical test of the general notion that job involvements is part of one's psychological identification with work, distinct from antedcedent needs and affective states. . . . The data . . . support the notion that insufficiently demanding jobs will be associated with lower levels of job involvement. (Reprinted from a review by L.D. Goldstein in *Group and Organization Studies*, vol. 6, no. 3, pp. 382-383, copyright 1981 by University Associates, with permission of Sage Publications, Inc.)

341. Kaplan, Robert E. The conspicuous absence of evidence that process consultation enhances task performance. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1979, 15(3), 346-360. [SN, Int, OD]

The assumption, thus far unsupported, that process consultation can facilitate task performance is based on another assumption--that process problems can impede performance--which *is* supported by the research literature.

. . . controlled outcome evaluation of process consultation has hardly begun. One might simply pass off the limited research that has been done as providing no support for the contention that process consultation enhances task performance; but a more profitable alternative is to subject the small body of research to an "autopsy" to determine what, if any, methodological maladies might have proven fatal. In this way, and also by sharpening notions of the functions served by process consultation, this reveiw can serve as a guide for future research (p. 347).

342. Kasarda, John D. The structural implications of social system size: A three-level analysis. *American Sociological Review*, 1974, 39(1), 19-28. [N, OrF, Env, Lin]

This study examines the structural implications of social system size on the three levels of the social system hierarchy: the institutional, the communal, and the societal. Cross-tabular and correlation analysis indicate that large size has a substantial influence on the internal organization of social systems at each level. The most pervasive effect of size is on the communicative structure of social systems. With expanding system size, disproportionately large amounts of human resources are drawn into the communicative components of institutions, communities, and societies. Professional and technical functions likewise tend to increase disproportionately, but not nearly as much as communicative functions. Comparative analysis also shows that current research findings on the negative effect of size on the managerial structure of institutions may not be generalizable to larger and more diffuse social systems. (author's abstract)

343. Katz, Daniel and Robert L. Kahn. *Social psychology of organizations.* (2nd ed.) New York: Wiley, 1978. [N, Int, OrF, Env, Lea, Mot]

The first edition is a classic that shook up the field and substantially advanced the state of knowledge. This revision retains nearly all of the meat and has added much more substance. . . . There is less in the revision that is bold and daring, and compared to other recent books, less that truly advances the field.

The book contains three major sections. "Theoretical Approaches" contains much of the material for which the original was most noted. Here the systems approach is developed. The organizational role is presented as a central construct, and organizational effectiveness is considered. The newcomer to this section is a chapter on environment.

In the second section, "Models of Organizations," ideas that were scattered, incomplete, and often implicit in the first edition emerge full-blown and unified. This section considers the integration of organizational needs for predictability, stability, and coordinated effort with individual needs, interests, and motives. The models for achieving integration are based on different assumptions about the nature of humans. Models assuming humans' political nature use power, authority, and rule compliance, while economic assumptions lead to reliance on external rewards and incentives. Models assuming humans' ideological nature stress value consensus and internalized motivation. Katz and Kahn developed the typology, present a chapter on each type, and conclude with a discussion of the behavioral consequences of each approach. The typology is developed and illustrated from a cross-cultural, cross-national orientation.

The final section, "Problems and Processes," is relatively unintegrated. Chapters on communication, decision making, leadership, and organization changes and convergences in organization change have been added. . . . The book is replete with insights that reflect the intelligence of its authors. -- A.M. Mohrman and S. Kerr in Contemporary Psychology, 1980, 25(3), 227-228.

344. Keeley, Michael. A social-justice approach to organizational evaluation. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1978, 23(2), 272-292. [N, Ev, Mot]

. . . the social-justice model avoids the implicit and arbitrary premises required for distinguishing organizational goals. It is not suggested that the operational problems of the social-justice model are trivial, but it is claimed that they are less severe than those of goal-based approaches to effectiveness. Should one dispute this advantage, another is much more important and conclusive: the social-justice model incorporates an explicit optimization criterion. Internally, this allows unequivocal judgment that one system, as defined, is preferable to alternative systems, as defined. . . .

. . . the social-justice model--specifically, the minimization-ofregret principle--manages to balance participant interests in an ethical, yet pragmatic, fashion. It may seem perverse to focus on regretful organizational participants rather than on those, possibly more in number, who enjoy the outcomes of cooperative activity. But the point is that generally aversive system consequences ought not, and in the long run, probably will not, be tolerated by some participants so that positive consequences can be produced for others. Systems that minimize the aversive consequences of interaction are, therefore, claimed to be more just as well as more stable in the long run (p. 290).

345. Kegan, Daniel L. Contradictions in the design and practice of an alternative organization: The case of Hampshire College. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1981, 17(1), 79-97. [S, Int, OrF]

Explicit and implicit design assumptions in the founding of Hampshire College (Amherst, Massachusetts) are examined as they relate to contradictions and problems evident in practice 20 years after initial design. The issues include: 1. the role of ideology in distorting perception and impeding problem solving, 2. the role of alternative institutions in the diffusion and implementation of educational innovations, 3. the backsliding from an experimenting institution, and 4. the difficulty of shifting from a founding to a self-renewing orientation. Analysis of the history and development of Hampshire College reveals that the College embodies a major contradiction in American society; i.e., that between the norms of individual freedom and responsibility and norms of social responsibility and community. Advice is offered to designers of alternative organizations. (abstract from INFO data base)

346. Kelly, James G. Naturalistic observations in contrasting social environments. In E.P. Willems and H.L. Rausch (Eds.), Naturalistic

viewpoints in psychological research. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1969; pp. 183-199. [S, Ef, OrF]

The focus of this research has been upon adaptive behavior by persons in different social settings. The theoretical goal is to develop propositions on how individuals become effective and survive in varied social environments. . . . The study of natural environments and how persons with different coping preferences interact with them [is to be described] (p. 183).

. . . in the work with two contrasting high school environments, students in a school with a high rate of exchange of students seemed almost oblivious, even indifferent, to being observed, while students in a second school . . . appeared to suppress public behavior, to become more covert . . . in their expressiveness. . . (p. 185).

I predicted that in an environment with rapid pupil turnover there would be . . . a dominant value for personal development; in other words, an individual's functional competence would be primary for societal membership. In the constant environment . . . , a monolithic society . . . was predicted to arise. The primary ethos here would be for members of the community to locate themselves rather than to develop (p. 188).

347. Kelly, James G. (Ed.) Adolescent boys in high school: A psychological study of coping and adaptation. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum, 1979. Distributed by the Halsted Press, a division of Wiley. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Env]

Includes a study in two high schools of "boys' preferences for exploratory behavior that engaged the social structure of the high school." At Wayne, students were expected to learn how to deal with authorities, initiate interactions with strangers, influence people in power, and work toward making their world effective. At Thurstone, students were expected to move toward their individual goals without participating actively in their immediate social settings.

High, moderate, and low explorers differed in the degree to which they exercised their competencies in school. High explorers interacted more with others than did low explorers. In group discussions, students showed very poor skill in facilitation. In problem-solving pairs, the pairs containing members both high on social exploration showed the highest scores on problem-solving competence, and the pairs containing members both low on social exploration showed the lowest scores on problem-solving competence.

348. Keutzer, Carolin S., Fred R. Fosmire, Richard Diller, and Mary Dell Smith. Laboratory training in a new social system: Evaluation of consulting relationship with a high school faculty. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1971, 7(4), 493-501. [S, Cl, Int, OrF, OD]

An account of "start up" training for the staff of a new high school. In comparison with a control school, the experimental staff showed increases in predicted candor, acceptance of overt conflict, and student perceptions of favorable conditions in the school (such as whether teachers make students feel like children). Impressions from direct observation supported questionnaire data. Some unfavorable concommitants are described.

See also Fosmire, Keutzer, and Diller (1971).

349. Keys, Chris B. Renewal processes in urban parochial schools. Theory Into Practice, 1979, 18(2), 97-105. [S, Cl, Int, OrF, Tea, OD]

In the summer of 1972, the Associate Superintendent of Curriculum for the schools of the Archdiocese of Chicago (Catholic) initiated a program of organizational renewal. A task force was formed of three members of the school system's central office and two faculty from the University of Illinois at Chicago Circle.

The method of selecting schools for Project START was unusually long and thorough. It went through five steps: (1) informational meeting, (2) discussions at individual schools, (3) decision retreat, (4) climate survey and feedback, and (5) task force selection of schools.

The three-day decision retreat was held at the end of January, 1973. Each school sent a four-person team that included the principal. Activities focussed on interpersonal and group skills, organizational skills, and the nature of the project. School teams gave one another feedback on interpersonal and group processes (e.g. awareness of feelings, openness of communication). Each team used a management diagnosis chart to appraise its school as an organization. The school teams worked together to develop their own negotiable criteria for selection into the project.

Following the selection of the schools, teams from each school participated in two workshops lasting a total of five days in the spring of 1973. Each school sent a team of as many as eight members, including the principal.

The purpose of the workshop was to increase the level of the interpersonal, group, and organizational skills of the school teams. The teams were then to serve as trainers in their own schools to communicate the major goals of the organizational renewal project and to teach renewal skills to their colleagues. After this training, the entire faculty was to work together in the processes of school renewal. Thus, the role of the teams as trainers was a temporary one.

The task force and school principals assessed the training needs of teachers in the summer of 1973, following the workshops. Three goals were set for the in-service training program in 1973-74: (1) to encourage open communication in project schools; (2) to increase the planning skills of faculty members; and (3) to develop school programs for improving the quality of education. To meet these goals, the coordinating council offered an in-service course in which interpersonal and organizational skills would be used to examine innovative educational approaches and their usefulness in project schools.

In late 1974, the needs of the different schools became more divergent as each school worked to implement its own goals. To accommodate the schools' diverse needs and yet provide an opportunity for schools to act as resources to one another, the council suggested that each school work with one or two other schools with similar interests. Each cluster of schools met for a full day of in-service training concerning issues of shared interest (e.g. curriculum change, needs of the poor).

To ascertain impact, a multi-method evaluation was conducted by researchers. Nine project schools and eleven comparison schools participated. Data were collected using questionnaires, interviews, and observations of faculty meetings. The major findings from data collected in the spring of 1974 were as follows:

1. Faculty in participating schools reported and demonstrated greater interpersonal competence in planning, decision making, and problem solving than faculty in comparison schools.

2. Project faculty were more likely to endorse norms of openness and involvement in interpersonal relationships than were comparison faculty.

3. Project faculties were more likely to develop shared goals than were comparison faculties.

4. Students in project schools were more likely to perceive a favorable classroom climate than were students in comparison schools.

5. After one year, new teachers in project schools were equal to or superior to experienced teachers in the reported use of interpersonal skills and in the development of shared goals.

The project was maintained and extended during 1974-75. The schools progressed with their plans for changes in educational programs, and project schools reported more educational innovations than the comparison schools. Nevertheless, project activities were severely curtailed in 1974-74 because of the lack of funds and the diverging interests of participating schools. Following are some of the events after 1974.

Both the high school and an elementary school with an ambivalent faculty withdrew from the project. A third school left the project because of difficulties with the local pastor. In 1976, however, five of the six other schools reported that they continued to use organizational diagnosis and collaborative problem-solving methods to develop, implement, and evaluate annual plans for school improvement. One school developed a school steering committee to provide decentralized decision making. Its staff reported that faculty turnover had been practically nonexistent for two years, a finding they attributed, in part, to its decentralized decision making. In a time of limited economic resources, the Archdiocese board hired a full-time renewal specialist to work with project schools and with principals throughout the system.

See also C.B. Keys and R.L. Kreisman. Organizational development, classroom climate, and grade level. Group and Organization Studies, 1978, 8(2), 224-238. Also C.B. Keys and J.M. Bartunek. Organization development in schools: Goal agreement, process skills, and diffusion of change. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1979, 15(1), 61-78.

350. Kiggundu, Moses N. An empirical test of the theory of job design using multiple job ratings. Human Relations, 1980, 33(5), 339-351. [N, Ev, OrF, Mot]

This study investigated the reliability and validity of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) using ratings of the job incumbents, their immediate supervisors, and informed nominated coworkers. It also provides a partial test of the Hackman and Oldham (1976) theory of job design using these multiple job ratings. Results show that previously found psychometric adequacy of the JDS and empirical support of the theory using only job incumbents can be generalized to nonincumbent job ratings. However, the magnitude of the relationship declines as one moves from the incumbents' job ratings. (author's abstract)

See also Hackman and Oldham (1980) and Institute for Social Research and Likert (1980).

351. King, Nathan. Clarification and evaluation of the two-factor theory of job satisfaction. Psychological Bulletin, 1970, 74(1), 18-31. [N, Ev, Mot]

Because the two-factor theory of job satisfaction has not been explicitly stated by its proponents, various researchers have explicitly or implicitly denoted different "theories" as the two-factor theory. Five distinct versions of the two-factor theory are explicated and evaluated. It is concluded that (a) two versions are invalid, as they are not supported by any empirical studies; (b) another version is invalid, as its alleged empirical support merely reflects experimenter coding biases; and (c) the validities of the remaining two versions are, at present, indeterminate, as they have not been adequately tested in studies where defensive biases inherent in certain self-report measures are eliminated. These conclusions are discussed in terms of the principle of multiple operationalism, and a method of testing the two indeterminate versions is suggested. (author's abstract)

352. Klausmeier, Herbert J. and Roland J. Pellegrin. The multiunit school: A differentiated staffing approach. In D.S. Bushnell and D. Rappaport

(Eds.), *Planned change in education: A systems approach*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1972. [S, OrF]

Describes the plan for structure and functioning of the multiunit school originated by the Wisconsin R & D Center for Cognitive Learning.

353. Knoke, David. Commitment and detachment in voluntary associations. *American Sociological Review*, 1981, 46, 141-158. [N, Mot, Lin]

Membership commitment to and detachment from voluntary associations is hypothesized to be affected by the degree to which the organization's political structure facilitates social control by members, in the sense of mutual self-regulation. Three components of the polity--decentralization, communication, and total influence--are analyzed for their impact on members of 32 noneconomic voluntary associations in Indianapolis. Using a contextual-effects model, communication and participation in decisions are found to increase commitment and to reduce detachment net of other organizational and individual factors. An interaction between communication and decision participation suggests that communciation can compensate for lack of direct involvement in making decisions in strengthening member support for the collectivity. (author's abstract)

354. Knudson, Harry R., Robert T. Woodworth, and Cecil H. Bell, Jr. *Management: An experiential approach*. (2nd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1979. [N, Int]

Contains exercises.

355. Kolb, David A., Irwin M. Rubin, and James M. McIntyre. *Organizational psychology: An experiential approach*. (3rd ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1979. [N, Int, OrF]

Contains exercises.

356. Korman, Abraham K. Organizational achievement, aggression and creativity: Some suggestions toward an integrated theory. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 1971, 6, 593-613. [N, OrF, Mot]

This paper develops the hypothesis that hierarchical structure and external control in organizations are antecedent variables leading to low achievement, low creativity, and high aggression. An intervening variable of belief systems is postulated and a consistency motivational hypothesis is suggested. Data supporting the hypothesis are reviewed and implications are suggested.

For other writings on motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

357. Korman, Abraham K. *Organizational behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1977. [SN, Int, OrF, Env, Lea, Mot, OD]

This textbook treats primarily industrial organizations, making only rare references to schools. The author's frequent discussion of types of task, however, makes it easy to apply what he says to schools. References to research are up to date. Partial contents: motivation to work; leadership; physical environment; alienation, stress, and satisfaction; entry by consultants; change in work settings; organizational development; change programs.

For other writings on motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

358. Kotter, John P. Organizational dynamics: Diagnosis and intervention. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1978. [N, Ev, Int, OrF, OD]

This book has been written both for managers and for those specialists who help managers use organizational improvement tools. The book's objective is not, however, to provide another specific tool. Instead, it offers an integrative perspective on organizational dynamics that can help both managers and specialists to better decide when, where, and how to use (or not use) the ever-increasing number of behavioral science and other organizational improvement techniques (p. 3).

For example, a manager who is considering bringing in an OD consultant, or using an employee attitude survey, or team building on a large scale, will often have great difficulty answering questions like the following:

1. Does this use of limited resources really make sense? What are the risks? Exactly how will it help my organization's effectiveness? How much will it help? Exactly what are the second-order consequences of this decision?

2. Could I better use these limited resources in another way? If I were to use the same amount of money to increase our advertising, would orders improve enough to ease the tensions around here and eliminate the problems we are currently experiencing?

3. Is this the proper time to use this tool (or method or approach)? Might it not make more sense to wait a month, a year, or even longer? How will its impact differ if done today rather than a year from now? (p. 5). (Kotter, Organizational dynamics, copyright 1978. Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA, pp. 3 and 5. Reprinted with permission.)

359. Kouzes, James M. and Paul R. Mico. Domain theory: An introduction to organizational behavior in human service organizations. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1979, 15(4), 449-469. [SN, OrF, Env, Lea]

The dominant paradigm of organizations, on which organization development (OD) is based, is industry-specific in theory and practice. The traditional manner by which OD technology has been transferrred to the human services field presumes that the same theories and practices prevail here as well. The authors challenge this presumption. They suggest that the behavior of human services organizations (HSOs) is based on a fundamentally different paradigm, which necessitates both a new organizational theory and a different OD practice. The authors introduce and discuss a theory of organizational behavior in HSOs, integrating their own experiences with the works of Bell, Jaques, Weick, Weisbord, and others. They suggest that HSOs are comprised of three distinct domains--the Policy Domain, the Management Domain, and the Service Domain. They maintain that each domain operates a different and contrasting principles, success measures, structural arrangements, and work modes, and that the interactions between these create natural conditions of disjunction and discordance. This paradigm of conflictiong domains can serve as a new conceptual guide to OD in HSOs, as well as aid to the development and refinement of new OD methods and tools specific to these organizations. (authors' abstract, quoted by permission of JAI Press.)

360. Kraus, William M. Collaboration in organizations: Alternatives to hierarchy. New York: Human Sciences Press, 1980. [SN, OrF, Mot]

Dr. Kraus has written an exuberantly normative book heralding the transformation of our organizational structures (and hence the lives of those working in human institutions) from competitive to cooperative value systems. He describes in great detail, drawing on examples to further his thesis, the visissitudes, character, and values of competitive hierarchical bureaucracies and those that are cooperative horizontal types.

It's clear that Kraus believes in collaborative systems and that change is needed desperately, since he and many others whom he quotes feel that competitive practices are doing a great deal of damage. Human relations, morale, productivity, innovative capacity all suffer, and the competitive model is, in general, eroding the quality of work life.

The exuberance and moral imperative expressed throughout the book, as well as the historical examples cited, provide a fascinating perspective on the problems of large-scale organizations and the ways the organizations can be restructured to bring about a better integration that now seems to exist between employees' basic human needs and organizational goals. . . .

The book will stir up controversy: it is sure to be enshrined by some and vilified by others. -- from the foreward by Warren Bennis.

A few of the topics: Why collaboration at all, Forces perpetuating competition and pushing for cooperation, Problem finding and problem solving, Alternative organizational conceptualizations, Functional dispersal index, Interaction of hierarchy and power, Strategies of conflict resolution.

361. Kurland, N.D. and R.I. Miller. Selected and annotated bibliography on the processes of change. Albany, NY: Center on Innovation, New York State Education Department, 1966. [S, Bib]

362. Langmeyer, Daniel. An exploratory study of group effectiveness using two tasks and three populations differing in organizational history. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1968. [S, OrF]

The experiment was designed as a 3 x 2 x 2 factorial with populations, tasks, and order of presentation as the factors. Each work group contained three subjects from one of three populations: ad hoc college, established college, and established field. Established groups had previous experience working together in either a social psychology class or on a school faculty. Ad hoc groups were drawn from a lecture section of social psychology. The tasks used were a peg task and a card task.

Established field groups took more time with the work task (card) than the other populations. Established college groups rated other group members as more responsive to questions and rated themselves as feeling less left out than other populations. For established college groups, satisfaction with scores was generally uncorrelated with actual production scores (but positively correlated for the other populations). The more dominance on the peg task, the more satisfaction with scores and method (the reverse being true for the other populations). The correlations between satisfaction and other variables indicate that established college groups were more sensitive to the interpersonal structure of the work group rather than production outcomes. (author's abstract)

363. Langmeyer, Daniel, Leonard Lansky, and W. Brendan Reddy. Organizational training in subsystems of a midwest school district. In W. Claiborn and R. Cohen (Eds.), School intervention. (Vol. 1) New York: Behavioral Publications, 1973; pp. 191-205. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Describes the organizational training offered two schools in a district to make communication patterns more functional and to introduce the management of change strategies. The assessment at the end of a year and a half seemed to show improvement in communication skills and more efficient meetings, but participants expressed disappointment that more problems had not been solved.

364. Laszlo, C.A., M.D. Levine, and J.H. Milsum. A general systems framework for social systems. Behavioral Science, 1974, 19(2), 79-92. [N, OrF, Env]

In this paper the relationship between general systems theory and social systems is explored, including an introduction to the general system characteristics which seem basic to social systems. Emphasis is placed on the discussion of social indicators and social accounts in the system theoretic context, and the adaptability of system and control concepts to the social environment. (authors' abstract)

365. Lau, Alan W. and Cynthia M. Pavett. The nature of managerial work: A comparison of public- and private-sector managers. Group and Organization Studies, 1980, 5(4), 453-464. [SN, OrF, Lea]

This study compared high-level managerial jobs in public and private sectors. Results indicate that managers in the public sector perform the same kind of activities as managers in the private sector in terms of complexity of job content, roles, and job characteristics. (authors' abstract)

366. Lau, James B. Behavior in organization: An experiential approach. (Rev. ed.) Homewood, IL: Richard D. Irwin, 1979. [N, Int, OrF]

Contains exercises.

367. Lawler, Edward E. III, David A. Nadler, and Cortlandt Cammann (Eds.) Organizational assessment: Perspectives on the measurement of organization behavior and the quality of work life. New York: Wiley, 1980. [N, Ev]

A variety of models and perspectives for measuring organizational behavior and change.

368. Lawrence, Paul R. and J.W. Lorsch. Developing organizations: Diagnosis and action. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1969. [N, Int, OrF, Env, OD]

An organization is defined as the coordination of different activities of individual contributors to carry out planned transactions with the environment. With regard to organization development, the authors focus on three critical interfaces: (1) the organization-environment interface, (2) the group-group interface, and (3) the individual-organization interface. The differentiation and integration model, which provides a set of concepts which enable an understanding of what characteristics an organization must have to be effective in a particular set of environmental circumstances, is used along with behavioral science tools and concepts to provide a way of understanding possible solutions to problems at the three critical interfaces. This forms a basis for the author's model of organization development, which consists of the following four stages: (1) diagnosis, (2) action planning, (3) implementation, and (4) evaluation. -- Maguire, Temkin, and Cummings (1971).

For an assessment of questionnaires used, see Tosi, Aldeg, and Story (1973).

369. Lehman, Linda. Organizational change and the teacher. Educational Technology, 1972, 12(10), 52-54. [S, Cl, Int, OrF, OD]

Many schools and school systems are currently considering various kinds of radical change: team teaching, open classrooms, participative decision-making, parent and community involvement, curricular revision and new evaluation techniques, to mention a few. Some of them are turning to OD and other consultancy services for help. Dr. Martin Luther King Elementary School in Syracuse, New York, embarked on a curricular and organizational change program five years ago. For the first three years the staff worked with a team of OD consultants from Syracuse University. In what follows I would like to state briefly how this happened, explain the master plan for change that was originally presented, and then, from my point of view as a teacher in the school, comment on what took place and try to assess the successes and failings of the whole program (p. 52).

370. Lehming, Rolf and Michael Kane. Improving schools: Using what we know. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1981. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

Includes pieces by Ernest House, Matthew Miles, Samuel Sieber, Karen Seashore Louis, Michael Fullan, and Paul Berman.

371. Lieberman, Ann (Ed.) Staff development: New demands, new realities, new perspectives. Teachers College Record, 1978, 80(1). [S, Int, ORF]

A special issue devoted to staff development and organizational functioning.

372. Lieberman, Morton A., Irvin D. Yalom, and Matthew B. Miles. Encounter groups: First facts. New York: Basic Books, 1973. [SN, Int, OD]

Reports studies of outcomes of 17 encounter groups containing students at Stanford. Reports effects of different styles of group leaderships, both as to helpfulness and "psychological injury." Supportive leaders were more helpful than charismatic or more challenging leaders.

For a demurral, see William C. Schutz. Not encounter and certainly not facts. In J.W. Pfeiffer and John E. Jones (Eds.), The 1974 annual handbook for group facilitators. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1974; pp. 279-285.

373. Lighthall, Frederick F. Multiple realities and organizational nonsolutions: An essay on "Anatomy of Educational Innovation." School Review, 1973, 81(2), 255-293. [S, Int, OrF, Lea, Mot]

. . . this study reveals in detail and on the hoof a kind of leadership that has widespread acceptance and is in abundant evidence among those in power--in schools, yes, but also in governments, businesses, and families. It is a concept of leadership that holds as legitimate the leader's manipulation of his subordinates (not necessarily followers), influencing them to do things in a way and at a time that he believes they would want if only they knew what he knows. . . . Smith and Keith's [1971] book reveals what happens to cooperation among mature humans when some of them, under the guise of being leaders, arrogate to themselves the authority and role of parents over others who are not their (or anyone else's) children. The study is an examination of the denial of multiple realities and of the repeated acting out of the synecdochical fantasy among those in power that their world is the world. Smith and Keith supply abundant data in support of the hypothesis (mine, not theirs) that positional power, unsupported by authentic and relevant communication, exercises a regressive influence (in the Piagetian sense) on the person holding the position: he becomes more egocentric in his view of the world into which he intervenes with power (pp. 255-256).

374. Lighthall, Frederick F. The role of the social psychologist of education. In D. Bar-Tal and L. Saxe (Eds.), Social psychology of education: Theory and research. Washington, DC: Hemisphere (distributed by Wiley), 1978; pp. 25-51. [S, Int, Mot, Lin]

Social psychologists and educators can work together better if they understand "on-line," "no-line," "off-line," and "side-line" action. On-line and no-line actions are distinguished by whose purposes are served and whose scheduling preferences are followed. "One is fully on line when one is pursuing one's own goals in one's own time. . . . One is totally caught in no-line action when one has discretion over neither the direction nor the timing of one's actions" (p. 30). In no-line action, others in powerful positions control our work. Examples of no-line organizations are prisons, hospitals, and schools.

We can also stand aside from our own work and examine it. Doing that enables us to contemplate changes in how we carry out our work. There are two kinds of standing aside: off-line action and sideline action. "Off-line action examines one's own behavior and experience; sideline action examines others' behavior and experience" (p. 32). Off-line action can affect performance because it enables us to consider changes in our own action. Sideline action can lead to off-line action, because observing others can give us ideas about our own action. Social psychologists can help educators to avoid no-line action and to move from sideline to off-line and then to on-line action.

375. Likert, Rensis and Jane Gibson Likert. New ways of managing conflict. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1976. [SN, Ev, OrF, Lea, Mot]

Relevant to business, government, education, community groups, etc., the System 4 leadership and interaction principles and their effective application can replace "win-lose" problem solvilng with "win-win" results. Clear-cut methods for applying these principles are presented in cojunction with measuring instruments for assessing how effectively the basic principles are used and to what extent conflict is being resolved. Also included is a discussion of power that outlines methods of its mobilization toward a constructive resolution of conflict.

376. Likert, Rensis and Jane Gibson Likert. A method for coping with conflict in problem-solving groups. Group and Organization Studies, 1978, 3(4), 427-4334. [SN, OrF]

The problem-solving method that is most often used in problem-solving groups is likely to create relationships among the members of the group that will lead to a win-lose solution. Some members will like the solution; others will be unhappy with it. When an additional step is added, the probability of the group reaching a win-win solution is greatly increased. This step is the listing of the conditions that the group members feel a solution must meet for it to be acceptable to them. This listing of essential conditions should occur after the problem is stated and before the group searches for possible solutions. This step decreases the probability that members will remain emotionally involved with particular solutions. It depersonalizes the problem-solving process and increases the likelihood that the final solution will be win-win and acceptable to all. (authors' abstract)

377. Lindelow, John. Educational vouchers. *School Management Digest*, No. 17, 1979. Order No. ED 173 889 from the Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. [S, Env]

A 63-page reveiw of recent research.

378. Lindelow, John. Making meetings more effective. *School Management Digest*, No.19, 1980. Order from the Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. (Prepared by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon.) [S, Int]

A 50-page review of recent research.

379. Lindelow, John. *School-based management*. Burlingame, CA: Foundation for Educational Administration, 1981. (Prepared by the ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon.) [S, OrF, Lea]

All successful organizations grapple at one time or another with the problem of finding a productive balance between autonomy and control. In the past decade, this problem has come to the fore in the field of public education.

Many educators contend that the balance between the autonomy of individual schools and the control imposed by the central office is askew. In the great majority of the nation's school districts, the central office makes most of the decisions governing the day-to-day operations of individual schools. Critics of this arrangement argue that it is overweighted in favor of control and that as a result school districts have become unresponsive to the needs of both their clientele and school-site personnel.

A new balance between autonomy and control can be achieved in public education, many educators believe, by making the school instead of the district the central locus of educational decision-making. In this special report on school-based management, the case for such a school-centered system of educational governance is put forth. -- from the foreword by P.K. Piele.

380. Lippitt, Ronald, Robert Fox, and Richard Schmuck. Innovating classroom practices to support achievement motivation and ego development. In E.M. Bower and W.G. Hollister (Eds.), Behavioral science frontiers in education. New York: Wiley, 1967; pp. 322-334. [S, CI, Mot]

An experiment to test ways of (1) enhancing the affective integration in the pupil of a positive feeling about himself and others and of (2) increasing the cognitive skills and coping mechanisms of the pupil.

For other writings on motivation, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

381. Lisser, Stanley. Desegregating the schools of Harrisburg. Urban Review, 1971, 5(1). [S, OrF, Env, Lin]

An example of problem solving between school and community. The author offers seven pre-requisites for working together on a problem -- in this case, de facto segregation: (1) The local school board and the central professional staff must unite in leadership; the planning must be used to improve the quality of the educational program; (2) the action taken should arise from commitment to principle, rather than reluctant compliance with state guidelines; (3) vigorous leadership must be exhibited by embedding supra-systems (e.g. state departments); (4) financial persuasion must match the commitment to principle; (5) the planning process must include all segments of the community concerned; members of the community must act not merely in an advisory capacity, but in continuing working roles; (6) the planning group should establish guidelines that will enable them to evaluate alternative proposals; (7) programs of preparation with all segments of the community should be carried through; they should include both informational activities and training for new roles.

382. Little, Judith Warren. Norms of collegiality and experimentation: Workplace conditions of school success. American Educational Research Journal, 1982, 19(3), 324-340. [S, OrF]

Without denying differences in individuals' skills, interests, commitment, curiosity, or persistence, the prevailing pattern of interactions and interpretations in each building demonstrably creates certain possibilities and sets certain limits.

We are led from a focus on professional improvement as an individual enterprise to improvement as particuarly an organizational phenomenon. Some schools sustain shared expectations (norms) both for extensive collegial work and for analysis and evaluation of an experimentation with their practices; continuous improvement is a shared undertaking in these schools, and these schools are the most adaptable and successful of the schools we studied (p. 338).

383. Locke, E.A., K.N. Shaw, L.M. Saari, and G.P. Latham. Goal setting and task performance: 1969-1980. Psychological Bulletin, 1981, 90, 125-152. [N, OrF, Mot]

The authors review the published literature for a decade, including both laboratory and field studies, on the effects of goal setting. They conclude that in at least 90% of the studies, specific and challenging goals lead to higher performance than easy goals, "do your best" goals, or no goals. Apparently goals affect performance by directing attention, mobilizing effort, increasing persistence, and increasing strategy development. Goal setting is most likely to increase task performance when the goals are specific and sufficiently challenging, the performers have adequate ability, feedback about attainment is regularly provided, rewards are available for successful performance, the manager (or experimenter) is supportive, and the goals are accepted by the person. Since the bulk of the studies involved goals set by others rather than self, the influencing of personal goal setting on performance could not be adequately evaluated. Individual "need for achievement" and personal self-esteem appear to be important individual difference variables that do affect performance. -- L.D.G. in Group and Organizational Studies, 1982, 7(1), 117.

384. Longabaugh, Richard. A category system for coding interpersonal behavior as social exchange. Sociometry, 1963, 26, 319-344.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for annotation.

385. Loucks, Susan F. and H. Pratt. A concerns-based approach to curriculum change. Educational Leadership, 1979, 37(3), 212-215. [S, Int, OrF]

This article documents a concerns-based planning and implementation of a curriculum change in a large school district requiring a long-term collaborative effort between researchers and field site practitioners. -- from the Catalog of Publications of the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Austin, Texas.

386. Louis, Karen Seashore. Dissemination of information from centralized bureaucracies to local schools: The role of the linking agent. Human Relations, 1977, 30(1), 24-42. [S, Lin]

A report of the Pilot State Dissemination Project. "Four critical variables are examined: the amount of initiative used to reach the target group, the intensity of the relationship between the field agent and the client, the degree of expertise exhibited by the agent. . . , and the scope of the agent's clientele" (author's abstract).

387. Louis, Maryl Reis. Surprise and sense making: What newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1980, 25(2), 226-251. [N, OrF]

Growing disillusionment among new members of organizations has been traced to inadequacies in approaches to organizational entry. Current directions of research on organizational entry and their limitations are described, and a new perspective is proposed. The new perspective identifies key features of newcomers' entry experiences, including surprise, contrast, and change, and describes the sense-making processes by which individuals cope with their entry experiences. Implications for research and practice on organizational entry are drawn. (author's abstract)

The third feature of the entry experience is surprise, which represents a difference between an individual's anticipations and subsequent experiences in the new setting. Surprise also encompasses one's affective reactions to any differences, including contrasts and changes. Surprise may be positive (e.g., delight at finding that your office window overlooks a garden) and/or negative (e.g. disappointment at finding that your office window can not be opened). The subject of anticipation and, therefore, surprise may be the job, the organization, or self. Anticipations may be conscious, tacit, or emergent; either overmet or undermet anticipations can produce surprise (p. 237).

388. Lubin, Bernard and Alice W. Lubin. Laboratory training stress compared with college examination stress. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1971, 7(4), 502-507. [N, OD]

Authors assessed anxiety, depression, and hostility by means of an adjective check-list in seven T-groups and seven undergraduate college classes. The trend was toward higher stress to be associated with college examinations than with T-groups. References are given to other studies of stress in T-groups.

389. Luke, Robert A., Jr. and Dorothy Mial. An emergent interuniversity consortium for educational change. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1971, 7, 194-214. [S, Int, Lin, OD]

This report describes the development of an interuniversity consortium, COPED (Cooperative Project for Educational Development), designed to develop and test strategies for planned change in educational systems. To maximize the resources available to client systems, it was decided to involve five universities, each with specialized resources and interests. It was acknowledged from the beginning that considerable energy would have to be devoted to intraorganizational issues such as power and influence, membership concerns, institutional and individual needs for autonomy, and consultant-client relationships. The report describes the major organizational and interpersonal issues and describes how the consortium dealt with the issues of its own maintenance.

For other reports from COPED or from projects using their questionnaires, see COPED (1970), Hilfiker (1970), Manno (1969), Schmuck and Runkel (1970), Thomas Stephens (1974), and Goodwin Watson (1967).

390. Macbeth, Paul R. Preparing organizational specialists for a school district: Some effects of laboratory training with an organizational development project. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1971. [S, Int, Lin, OD]

The purpose of this study was to describe and evaluate a laboratory training program for a team of organizational specialists in a school district. The team was trained to sense and diagnose organizational maladaptiveness, intervene into organizational processes, and assess the effects of interventions made. The interventions included facilitating communication, goal clarity, and working relationships within and between subsystems in the district such as school staffs and decision making units.

Personality factors did not relate to training outcomes directly, but did influence the way a trainee participated in the laboratory. Also, the nature of involvement and participation in the laboratory was the best predictor of learning from training. Contrary to prediction, the amount learned during training did not relate to success in the field as a specialist; organizational factors mediated between laboratory learning and effectiveness in the field. Success in actual training events was shown to be a function of a participant's initial desire to join the program, his security in the district, and his perceived power to evoke change in district groups. (author's abstract)

391. MacLean, Paul D. A mind of three minds: Educating the triune brain. In J.S. Chall and A.F. Mirsky (Eds.) Education and the brain: The seventy-seventh yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1978; pp. 308-342. [S, Ef, Mot]

Explains the behavior controlled by each of the reptilian brain, limbic system, and neocortex. Suggests ages when different kinds of behavior can be learned. In the same book, the chapter by Epstein lays out the ages at which the brain develops new capacities, gives the correspondences with Piaget's stages, and offers a new explanation for the lack of effect of Head Start. The chapter by Mirsky explains the neurological bases of attention. The chapter by Wittrock reviews recent research and its educational implications.

392. Maguire, Louis M., Sanford Temkin, and C. Peter Cummings. An annotated bibliography on administering for change. Philadelphia, PA: Research for Better Schools, Inc., 1971. [S, Int, Bib]

Sixty-four among the hundreds of entries are themselves bibliographies.

393. Maier, Norman R.F., Allan R. Solem, and Ayesha A. Maier. Role-play technique: A handbook for management and leadership practice. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1975. [N, Int]

Contains exercises.

394. Management and Behavioral Science Center. Improving productivity and the quality of working life in the public sector: Pioneering initiatives in labor-management cooperation. Philadelphia, PA: Author, Wharton School, University of Pennsylvania, 1980. [N, Int, OrF]

[The MBSC] at the Univeristy of Pennsylvania has been involved in collaborative research into a network-building effort in labor management and work innovation in the public sector in ten American cities. This project is remarkable for the fact that the federal agency concerned (the National Center for Productivity and the Quality of Working Life) did not attempt to develop a central model but sought to elicit the ideas of the periphery and to encourage the various cities to learn from each other. It is also remarkable for the fact that the agency accepted a new methodology of evaluation based on developing the learning capability of the sites through what has been called 'thematic facilitation,' rather than depending on a set of externally contrived, preprogrammed criteria. The research team worked in a participant mode with the sites, repeatedly feeding back material. The most advanced sites have certain common features: they proceed in terms of a programmatic theme as contrasted with single projects with a beginning, a middle, and an end; the overall labor-management steering committee decentralizes responsibility for projects to an evolving set of subcommittees, which draw in an increasing number of people; these committees are empowered to implement--they are not restricted to making recommendations; the overall committee is outward-oriented to the wider organization, whose general policies it seeks to influence; there is no attempt to interfere with the existing adversarial machinery but rather an attempt to build a parallel organization in the collaborative mode. Though this project was undertaken during the period when the Prposition 13 mentality was spreading throughout the country, all the committees have (with whatever vicissitudes) survived. This may be interpreted as a sign that an authentic collaborative process is beginning to emerge in the U.S. public sector. -- from Eric Trist. The evolution of socio-technical systems. *Occasional Paper No. 2*. Toronto, Ontario: Ontario Quality of Work Life Center, 1981; p. 57.

395. Mangham, Iain. *The politics of organizational change*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press, 1979. [N, Int, OrF, Tea]

Change is made in any organization through a series of strategems, manoeuvres, compromises and bargains--in other words, through politics.

This is how Professor Mangham believes organizations change--politically, not in a pejorative sense but in the sense that when individuals interact with each other they do so to secure their own benefit, as they perceive it. Life in organizations is therefore political through the struggle of reasonable men to have what they consider right and proper prevail. Thus political behavior, in a company for example, must be seen as a necessary and inevitable consequence of individuals coming together and seeking to achieve particular organizational, group or personal goals.

But although about the politics of the organization, this book is not a guide to survival in the office or to corporate climbing. Rather, it sets out the basic processes which underpin all behavior and relates their implications to an understanding of how people in organizations behave. By way of a number of case studies, the book renders political behavior in organizations intelligible and develops approaches to the processes of organizational change which take account of the nature and effects of political behavior. -- Publisher's blurb.

396. Mankin, Don, Russell E. Ames, Jr., and Milton A. Grodsky (Eds.) Classics in industrial and organizational psychology. Oak Park, IL: Moore, 1980. [N, Int, OrF]

Contains 42 landmark and "turning point" articles.

397. Mann, Dale (Ed.) Making change happen? New York: Teachers College Press, 1978. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, Env, Lin]

This book spells out some of the evidence and some of the ramifications of [the] current level of understanding about the implementation of change.

The three chapters in Part I . . . report on some of the results from the first year of one of the most extensive examinations of the change process in recent time. The chapters are secondary analyses of the Rand Corporation's study of federal program supporting educational change. . . (p. xiii).

The innovations examined in Milbrey Walling McLaughlin's chapter, "Implementation as Mutual Adaptation: Change in Classroom Organization," [pp. 19-31] went beyond techological change to organizational change. These innovations shared a belief that humanistic, individualized, and child-centered education requires more than incremental or marginal change in the behavior of the classroom teacher. McLaughlin makes the fundamental point that the demands of implementation itself dominate the innovation process and its outcomes regardless of the educational treatment being attempted, the level of resources applied, or the type of federal funding used (pp. xv-xvi).

Part II, "Big Shocks, Big Programs, Big Money," extends the book's focus to experiences with large-scale, intense, or comprehensive efforts to change school practices (p. xvii).

Wayne J. Doyle's chapter, "A Solution in Search of a Problem: Comprehensive Change and the Jefferson Experimental Schools," [pp. 78-100] deals with one of the most intense efforts to bring fundamental change to American schooling. Stung by criticisms that reforms had been too slow and too little, the federally sponsored Experimental Schools Program set out to support a small number of highly innovative alternative schools (pp. xvii-xviii).

R. Gary Bridge's chapter, "Parent Participation in School Innovations," [pp. 101-119] develops several aspects of the pivotal role parents play in accepting or rejecting innovations at the local school level. Drawing on his own extensive experience with the Rand Corporation's study of the Alum Rock (California) Education Voucher Demonstration, Professor Bridge asks three central questions: (1) What kinds of schooling decisions do normative models suggest parents should make? (2) What kinds of schooling decisions do parents want to make? and (3) Who seems to be competent to participate effectively? (p. xviii).

In their chapter [pp. 120-149], Ralph A. Hanson and Richard E. Schutz discuss the results of one departure from that pattern. Over the last several years the Southwest Regional Educational Laboratory (SWRL) has been able to devote a substantial part of its budget to a series of closely linked programs designed to improve reading skills in the early grades. In cooperation with a publisher (Ginn and Company) the lab has gathered data on two years' experience on the part of 20 percent of the nation's kindergarten children. The results are, literally, remarkable.

1. Learned achievement increased as a function of the number of curriculum units completed (i.e., when taught more, children learned more).
2. The achievement results are more closely related to the number of units completed than to what Hanson and Schutz refer to as "biosocial" characteristics. That is, black children and poor children (both were overrepresented in the sample) learn as well as do other children.
3. The implementation of the program on the school level has been faithful. The program's requirements and the school's ability and willingness to use the program appear to be nicely matched.
4. Contrary to the charge that schools can't teach and that they don't make as much of a difference in children's achievement as do nonschool factors such as ethnic group and family income, Hanson and Schutz argue that the variables related to student achievement are well within the school's reach. By spending more time teaching some kinds of carefully developed curriculum, the school can affect student achievement (p. xix).

In "Implementation of ESEA Title I: A Problem of Compliance" [pp. 162-180], Milbrey Walling McLaughlin returns to comment on the experience of the federal government's large-scale attempt to improve the education of the disadvantaged through Title I of ESEA. McLaughlin's discussion concentrates clearly on the dilemma of making policy about implementation, that is, on the difficulty of forming judgments and actions at an overall level that will in fact have an impact at the discrete, delivery, or implementation level. . . . Her analysis turns around the interaction of four related factors at the different levels of policy formation and implementation--goals, knowledge, incentives, and authority. The absence of clearly understood and operational amounts of all of those things at the delivery level meant that Title I was virtually never implemented (p. xx).

Part III turns to the task of interpreting the evidence about change in education and discusses its implications for future practice. . . (p. xxii).

In "Horses Before Carts: Developing Adaptive Schools and the Limits of Innovation" [pp. 224-260], Willis D. Hawley argues for a redirection of our attention from innovation to adaptiveness. The trouble with innovation, Hawley maintains, is that it assumes that there is a one-best-way to teach (that best way being what's inside the innovative project's package). Hawley observes what is amply documented elsewhere in this book, that adopting an innovation is not the same things as implementing one. And implementing an innovation too often makes no difference in student outcomes. By contrast, adaptiveness, the capacity over time to solve problems--to be flexible and creative--is a more desirable goal than innovativeness. Since attention to the learning needs of individual students is the in-school variable most clearly associated with success, Hawley focuses on how adaptiveness can be facilitated in teachers. After a discussion of the costs and benefits that might accrue to teachers from a more adaptive stance, Hawley points out the implications of his argument for the organization and administration of schools (pp. xxii-xxiii).

This introduction can be concluded with three observations. First, our current technologies of change are inadequate to the demands of the delivery level of schooling. Second, the values which inform our technologies are insufficiently persuasive. And, third, it now seems clear that there are situations or areas of public policy which are beyond the reach, beyond the capability, of government action. Historically, we have tended to assume that almost any social problem could be ameliorated--if not solved--with a corresponding social program. On the basis of what is now known about available technologies, available values, and the characteristics of many sociopolitical problems, that assumption is incorrect (p. xxv). Reprinted by permission of the publisher from Dale Mann (Ed.), Making change happen? (New York: Teachers College Press, copyright 1978 by Teachers College, Columbia University). All rights reserved.

398. Manno, A.O. Group interaction as a means of inducing innovative teaching in elementary schools. Doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1969. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Teachers who participated with their principals in a series of programmed exercises innovated slightly more than teachers in control schools.

For other reports from COPED or from projects using COPED's questionnaires, see COPED (1970), Hilfiker (1970), Luke and Mial (1971), Schmuck and Runkel (1970), Thomas Stephens (1974), and Goodwin Watson (1967).

399. March, James G. Model bias in social action. Review of Educational Research, 1972, 42(4), 413-429. Copyright 1972, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [S, Int, OrF]

"The major claim to legitimacy by a social scientist is the claim . . . that his speculations are good ones" (p. 413). March goes on to list some familiar speculations; that is, "myths by which we deal with other people . . . by which we deal with ourselves" (p. 414). Some myths or familiar speculations discussed by March included these:

> Human beings aspire for power and direct their behavior primarily toward gaining a favorable power balance with other people.
>
> Adult human behavior is understandable in its basic forms as stemming primarily from experience of early childhood.
>
> Things are not what they seem. Human beings are guided by a number of unconscious motives that affect their behavior in subtle ways.
>
> The problems of policy making are seen as first discovering a set of acceptable social objectives, second finding a set of procedures..., and third evaluating the achievement of those prior objectives...." (pp. 414-417).

. . . we need to find some ways of helping individuals and organizations to experiment with doing things for which they have no good reason, to be playful with their conception of themselves. We can treat goals as hypotheses. . . . intuition as real. . . . hypocrisy as a transition. . . . memory as an enemy . . . [and] experience as theory (pp. 426-427).

[Planning] can be used as a part of the efforts of the organization to develop a new consistent theory of itself. . . . social experiments need not be [judged] in terms of the degree to which they have fulfilled our a priori expectations [but] rather . . . in terms of what we now believe to be important. . . . The design of organizations should [maintain] both playfulness and reason as aspects of intelligent choice (pp. 427-428).

400. March, James G. Footnotes to organizational change. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1981, 26(4), 563-577. [N, Int, OrF, Env]

This paper explores five footnotes to research on organizational change, possible comments on what we know. . . .

Footnote 1: Organizations are continually changing, routinely, easily, and responsively, but change within them cannot ordinarily be arbitrarily controlled. Organizations rarely do exactly what they are told to do.

Footnote 2: Changes in organizations depend on a few stable processes. Theories of change emphasize either the stability of the processes or the changes they produce, but a serious understanding of organizations requires attention to both.

Footnote 3: Theories of change in organizations are primarily different ways of describing theories of action in organizations, not different theories. Most changes in organizations reflect simple responses to demographic, economic, social, and political forces.

Footnote 4: Although organizational response to environmental events is broadly adaptive and mostly routine, the response takes place in a confusing world. As a result, prosaic processes sometimes have surprising outcomes.

Footnote 5: Adaptation to a changing environment involves an interplay of rationality and foolishness. Organizational foolishness is not maintained as a conscious strategy, but is embedded in such familiar organizational anomalies as slack, managerial incentives, symbolic action, ambiguity, and loose coupling (p. 563).

401. March, James G. and Johan P. Olsen. Ambiguity and choice in organizations. Bergen, Norway: Universitetsforlaget, 1976. [S, Int, OrF, Env, Lea]

We all know that people collected together in organizations seldom make rational decisions. Most of the time their choice behavior is an aberration away from that ideal. What's new is that the aberration isn't as unstructured as might be thought, that the apparent anarchy has a structure and organization of its own that is a natural, and even sensible, response to extreme uncertainty. March, Olsen, and their eight collaborators provide rich theoretical and empirical detail on the texture of such "organized anarchies" and the garbage can decision processes that operate within them. . . .

Most contemporary theorists assume that organizations respond to uncertainty by either attempting to gain control over the source of the uncertainty, or by buffering the core processes against unforeseen or uncontrollable contingencies. . . .

Organizations, however, cannot always buffer uncertainty. Similarly, they cannot and do not always find measurable surrogates for ambiguous goals. They do not always know what they are doing or how to do it. Despite this, and with few exceptions, . . . administrative theory has not dealt directly with choice under conditions of ambiguity.

[This book] represents an attempt to develop such a theory and to identify and apply research methodology appropriate for testing it. What appears to be chaotic choice within the context of traditional nonambiguous models of choice is made to look orderly and fairly systematic when organizations are taken to be "organized anarchies"--in which decisions are made through "garbage can" processes. . . .

It is possible that anarchy is an appropriate, even functional response to ambiguity. -- M.K. Moch and L.R. Pondy in Administrative Science Quarterly, 1977, 22(2), 351-362.

402. Marcum, R. Laverne. Organizational climate and the adoption of educational innovation. Logan, UT: Utah State University, 1968. ERIC order number ED 023 158. [S, Int, OrF]

A study was conducted to determine those factors which inhibit or cause change to occur in a school system. Data were gathered from 1,058 teachers and administrators from thirty schools in five western states. Halpin and Crofts' Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire was administered to the teachers and principals of the thirty schools to determine the climate of the school. It was concluded that schools involved in innovational practices were also characterized by open climates, higher expenditure per student, younger professional staff, lower tenure in the school, and a larger number of professional staff. Also, principals in the most innovative schools perceive the climate as more open than do the teachers; however, the teachers still viewed the climate as open. Finally, younger teachers, larger number of professional staff, and the lower mean number of years at a school were associated with the open climate schools. -- Maguire, Temkin, and Cummings (1971).

403. Margulies, Newton. Organizational development in a university setting: Some problems of initiating change. Educational Technology, 1972, 12(10), 48-51. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

. . . an effort was made to initiate an organizational development program in a. . . . College of Social Sciences. . . . The impetus for engaging in organizational development came from one of the department chairmen, who thought that the OD process and technology held some promise for assessing and dealing with the current problems of the College of Social Sciences (p. 48).

404. Margulies, Newton and Anthony P. Raia. Conceptual foundations of organizational development. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1978. [N, OD]

Comprises 150 pages of text and 14 selected readings.

405. Margulies, Newton, Penny L. Wright, and Richard W. Scholl. Organization development techniques: Their impact on change. Group and Organization Studies, 1977, 2(4), 428-448. [SN, OD]

Organization development (OD), as an applied arm of the field of organizational behavior, purports to facilitate organizational change through the use of a variety of change interventions. Its proponents feel that the tools and techniques of OD can improve an organization's problem-solving ability, increase its ability to adapt to rapid societal change, and provide managers an updated set of concepts and methods for managing their organizations. This article reviews and evaluates the research on the impact of organization development interventions. Although there is an abundance of literature on OD, there is very little research on its effects that can withstand the rigorous testing most social scientists would expect. Furthermore, there is research available on only six interventions of the wide variety reported in the literature. Although there is a paucity of research information in this area, what is available does help to identify what is known and what is speculation about OD. More important, the review reported here indicates areas for improved research and directions for future research. (authors' abstract) (Reprinted from N. Margulies, A.P. Raia, and R.W. Scholl. Organization development techniques: Their impact on change. Group and Organization Studies, vol. 2, no. 4, pp. 428-448, copyright 1977 by University Associates, with permission of Sage Publications, Inc.)

406. Marien, Michael. Notes on the education complex as an emerging macrosystem. In E.O. Attinger (Ed.), Global systems dynamics. New York: S. Karger, 1970; pp. 225-244. [S, Env, Lin]

Growing social complexity . . . necessitates transdisciplinary program overviews to aid public policy formulation. 'The Education Complex' focuses on the interaction of four components (core education systems, peripheral programs, selected suppliers, and organized beneficiaries), and places special emphasis on system relationships to informal education and international education. . . . The suggested realities of emerging and overlapping macrosystems require certain adaptations for general systems theory: accepting a world of blurring boundaries and lagging concepts and moving from a focus on isomorphic traits to one involving a systems spectrum. . . . (author's abstract)

407. Marien, Michael D. Alternative futures for learning: An annotated bibliography of trends, forecasts, and proposals. Syracuse, NY: Educational Policy Research Center (1206 Harrision Street, 13210), 1971. [S, Cl, Env, Bib]

408. Markham, William T., Charles M. Bonjean, and Judy Corder-Bolz. Self-expression at work: A theory-based questionnaire instrument. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1980, 16(2), 167-191. [N, Ev, OrF, Mot]

This paper describes the development, validation, and application of a theory-based questionnaire instrument for the measurement of the congruence of organizational conditions with individual predispositions toward work. Using data from 829 employees in six offices of a government agency, an instrument grounded in personality and organization theory was shown to be useful in organizational assessment and development. The instrument was shown to be internally consistent and to provide a measure of self-expression in organizational participation which related to other variables as predicted by personality and organization theory. (author's abstract)

For other writings on motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

409. Maslow, Abraham. Motivation and personality. New York: Harper and Row, 1954. An earlier statement was: A theory of human motivation. Psychological Review, 1943, 50, 370-396.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for annotation.

410. Mazarella, Jo Ann. Alternative schools. School Management Digest, No. 13, 1978. Order No. ED 163 560 from the Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. [S, Cl, OrF]

A 49-page review of recent research.

411. Mazzarella, Jo Ann. Improving self-image of students. School Management Digest, No. 14, 1978. Order No. ED 163 561 from the Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. [S, Cl, Ef]

A 47-page review of recent research.

412. Mazzarella, Jo Ann. Leadership effectiveness. School Management Digest, No. 16, 1979. Order No. ED 176 362 from the Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. [S, Lea]

A 53-page review of recent research.

413. McCaskey, Michael B. A contingency approach to planning: Planning with goals and planning without goals. Academy of Management Journal, 1974, 17(2), 281-291. [S, OrF]

This paper challenges conventional descriptions of planning as necessarily tied to setting specific goals. The author describes a more intuitive planning process which proceeds by identifying arenas of activity and preferred styles of acting. The choice of planning mode is contingent upon task, organizational, and people characteristics. (author's abstract)

414. McClelland, David C. Methods of measuring human motivation. In J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), Motives in fantasy, action, and society. New York: Van Nostrand, 1958; pp. 7-42.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for annotation.

415. McClelland, David C. Managing motivation to expand human freedom. American Psychologist, 1978, 33(3), 201-210. [SN, Ef, Int, Mot]

The American public has come to question whether psychological knowledge can be used to improve the human condition. The main reason for this disillusionment is that in the 1960s we set grandiose goals for ourselves to transform society in a hurry, applied massive doses of inappropriate behavioral technology, and by and large failed to reach these goals. But we can be more successful if we diagnose problems precisely, set more moderate goals, and apply appropriate behavioral technology to achieve them. Illustrations are given of how advances in motivational technology have contributed to raising the standard of living for the poor, facilitated compensatory education, provided a means of assessing the contribution of higher education, helped control serious diseases, and made management of complex enterprises more effective. (author's abstract)

To move on to a second example, in the 1960s there were hundreds of programs sponsored by governmental agencies to improve education for the disadvantaged. They were designed to assist poor and underprivileged children to catch up with the middle class in cognitive skills and social adaptation. Few such programs were systematically evaluated. . . . More typical was Project Phoenix (Arizona State University and the Ford Foundation). . . .

The results, alas, were all too predictable. After 2 years of intensive effort, evaluators could not discover any significant impact that the program had had on the counseled students' grades, test scores, or attendance at school. There is no reason to think that this project was any worse than hundreds of other similar projects planned according to the conventional wisdom about how to motivate students in such circumstances. . . .

So it is especially exciting against this record of more or less continuous failure to find an instance in which the application of advanced motivational technology appears to have achieved at least some moderate success in the compensatory education field. DeCharms (1976) has reported the results of an extensive project he undertook to improve education in ghetto schools in St. Louis in the sixth and seventh grades. . . . He started with the notion of teaching teachers what behaviors were associated with *n* Achievement, so that they could modify their usual classroom approach in order to encourage the development of such motivation in their pupils. . . .

DeCharms went much further to develop what he calls "Origin" training, which teaches pupils by direct experiential learning to take charge of their own lives and solve problems on their own. In comparison with interventions like the Youth to Youth Counseling Project in Phoenix, which was not based on years of motivational research, the impact of Origin training was impressive. In DeCharms' control groups of ghetto pupils, average scores on the Iowa Test of Basic Skills dropped further and further behind age norms from grades six through eight, but in classrooms managed by the teachers who had provided Origin training, pupils' test scores actually began to catch up with age norms. The results are highly significant and cast serious doubt on the flat assertion that compensatory education has failed. DeCharm's program seems to me to have increased the children's freedom to take advantage of the opportunities that life offers (pp. 206-207). (Copyright 1978 by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted by permission of the publisher and author.)

416. McClelland, David C., J.W. Atkinson, R.A. Clark, and E.L. Lowell. *The achievement motive*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953.

See Schmuck and Runkel (1982) for annotation.

417. McDill, Edward L. and Leo C. Rigsby. Structure and process in secondary schools: The academic impact of educational climates. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1973. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Env]

The McDill and Rigsby study evolves from a contextual or organizational climate tradition. McDill and Rigsby are interestred both in the causes and effects of social climates in secondary schools. They look at the impact [in 20 high schools] of social climate on math achievement and student plans for college. In doing so, they control for the effects of the socioeconomic composition of the school, and individual student characteristics such as sex, ability, academic values, family background, and parental encouragement. They look separately at the impact of peer group influences on achievement and aspirations. They look also at the impact of other organizational and environmental influences on school climate. . . .

They have developed a measure of social climate consisting of six independent and internally cohesive dimensions. Of these six, academic emulation--or the extent to which a school stresses intellectual and competitive values--is the most powerful. . . .

McDill and Rigsby are also able to relate their educational climate measures to achievement and aspirations. The climate effect remains significant, although not exceedingly powerful. . . .

Their success in relating peer group influences to achievement and aspirations and to climate is even more striking. The authors have here produced the strongest section of the book. Both the conceptualization and the subsequent interpretation and discussion of peer group influences on student achievement and aspirations are rich theoretically. . . .

They are somewhat successful in relating environmental characteristics to climate and outcome measures. Particularly, they are able to show a strong relationship between parent involvement, school climate, and student outcomes.

. . . McDill and Rigsby have excluded other features of school, department, or classroom organization that may relate directly to school climate and also indirectly to student outcomes. For example, they would have made structural sociologists much happier if they had included at the school level measures of formal evaluation policies and processes, teacher participation in school-wide decision making, the use of specialists, or the principal's instructional leadership. At the classroom level, they might have included measures of grading practices, teaming or other interdependent relationships among teachers, or the extent to which classroom aides, community volunteers, or classroom tutors are used regularly in instruction. . . .

Overall, McDill and Rigsby have made an important contribution to the student outcome side of organizational knowledge. . . . -- T.E. Deal in *Contemporary Psychology*, 1975, 20(2), 131-133.

See also E.L. McDill, L.C. Rigsby, and Edmund D. Meyers, Jr. Educational climates of high schools: The effects and sources. In D.A. Erickson (Ed.), *Educational organization and administration*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1977; pp. 26-54.

418. McElvaney, Charles T. and Matthew B. Miles. Using survey feedback and consultation. In R.A. Schmuck and M.B. Miles (Eds.), *Organization development in schools*. Palo Alto, CA: National Press Books (now Mayfield), 1971; pp. 113-138. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Shows how and why survey feedback has its effects as an intervention. In this study, it led on to active problem solving and coaching help for the top administrative team.

Other reports of the same project are B.A. Benedict, P.H. Calder, D.M. Callahan, H.A. Hornstein, and M.B. Miles. The clinical experimental method of assessing organizational change efforts. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1967, 3, 347-380, and M.B. Miles, H.A. Hornstein, D.M. Callahan, P.H. Calder, and R.S. Schiavo. The consequences of survey feedback: Theory and evaluation. In W.G. Bennis, K.D. Benne, and R. Chin (Eds.), *The planning of change*. (2nd ed.) New York: Holt, Rinehard, Winston, 1969; pp. 457-468.

419. McGrath, Joseph E. and David A. Kravitz. Group research. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 1982, 33, 195-230. [N, Int, OrF]

. . . eight task types, and subtypes within them, reflect a complex ordering relating to the primary performances processes involved, disjunctive and conjunctive relations, and cognitive, affective, and conative emphases. The quadrants, with their types and some subtypes, are:

I. *To Generate* (1. Plans; 2. Creative ideas)

II. *To Choose* (3. Interest tasks; 4. Decision tasks, including juries and choice shift tasks)

III. *To Resolve* (5. Cognitive conflict tasks; 6. Interest conflict tasks, including negotiation and bargaining, dilemmas, and coalition formation and allocation tasks)

IV. *To Execute* (7. Contests, such as competitive sports, wars; 8. Physical tasks) (p. 202).

Tasks of the first type are . . . *intellective tasks* (and what others have called problem solving). These are tasks for which there is, or is considered to be, a correct answer. . . . One very robust finding from that work is that the "best fit" decision scheme for almost all

> such problems is: "truth, supported, wins". . . . Many past studies of group problem solving tested groups agains a "truth wins" criterion and found groups "less effective" (than their "best" member). This has been taken as a sign of "process loses," an indictor of inefficiency in groups. . . . one can equally well regard this in a different light. The group's unwillingness uncritically to "buy" the noncompelling solution touted by a single member (even when that member has "truth," in the sense that the experimenter knows that that particular answer is correct), but to do so when the solution has some support, can be viewed as evidence of the good sense or pragmatic wisdom of groups, rather than of their inefficiency due to process losses (pp. 202-203).
>
> The second problem within the decision task category that received substantial attention during the period of this review is work on. . . . the risky-shift-choice-shift-polarization phenomenon. . . . the overall thrust of that evidence shows that after group discussion, group members shift toward whichever end of the issue they already favored; and the degree of shift on an item correlates strongly with the degree of prior tendency in that direction characteristic of that item (hence, it is if anything depressed by the operation of regression effects). So the very robust phenomenon of the 1960s is not really a "risky shift" in groups, but an accentuation of direction of prior individual views after exposure to group discussion (p. 205).
>
> . . . there was a considerable amount of work dealing with significant third parties, including research on the relationship between the negotiator and his or her constituents. [One summary of research showed that] (a) third parties help concession-making without loss of face; (b) traditional intervention techniques work under low conflict, but may backfire under high conflict conditions; and (c) third-party intervention is often an unwanted intrusion, and the parties will setting to prevent it if they can. . . .
>
> The problem of choice under social dilemma conditions has received increased attention in models and empirical research on N-person dilemma games, social traps, and "public goods" approaches. These paradigms offer promise as bases for exploring choice under dilemma conditions far less restricted than the two person, two-choice paradigms that characterized most of the work in this area during the previous three decades (p. 207).
>
> Readers certainly have adduced by now that we view the most recent period as a productive one for group research and see the near future as promising for advances in our knowledge in that area (p. 218).

420. McGregor, Douglas. The professional manager. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967. [N, OrF, Lea, Mot]

McGregor wrote that most original and seminal book (The Human Side of Enterprise) on industrial psychology in the past two decades. The Professional Manager is a major step ahead of that book in linking behavioral concepts to organization behavior and showing how a Theory Y organization may be developed through appropriate managerial intervention and understanding. McGregor's book is unique because it is a personal statement about the nature of managerial leadership and how it can optimize organizational goals to individual needs. No one writing today has the emphthy and understanding of psychology and the enterprise as had McGregor. -- Warren Bennis quoted in publisher's blurb.

For a review, see S. Kingsbury in Administrative Science Quarterly, 1968, 12, 628-630.

For other writings on motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

421. McKibbin, Sue. Traditional organizational theory in educational administration. In D.L. Clark, S. McKibbin, and M. Malkas (Eds.), Alternative perspectives for viewing educational organizations. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1981; pp. 3-13. [S, OrF]

Listed below are six key elements presupposed by classical organizational theory:

1. A hierarchical organizational structure that systematically orders communication and authority among formally established positions.
2. Division of labor based on functional specialization.
3. A system of procedures, rules, and regulations covering the rights and duties of employees in work situations.
4. Impersonality of interpersonal relations.
5. Promotion and selection based on technical competence.
6. Rational, systematic, goal-oriented organizational processes (p.4).

422. McKibbin, Sue, Ann Lieberman, and David Degener. Using knowledge for school improvement: A guide for educators. San Francisco: Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1981. [S, Int, OrF, Env, Lin]

. . . there is a need to recognize the complex nature of schools, the interactions between outsiders and insiders, the different perspectives educators hold, and the bumpy road that leads to school improvement. A bit more knowledge has been collected about the ways and means of approaching the social and political realities of school improvement. A number of those realities are summarized here:

Different ways of viewing the change process underscore its complexity. Educators need to understand the innovations themselves, as well as the context and the perspectives of those who will ultimately use the new ideas.

Innovations are introduced into schools where the system is already vulnerable to many social pressures. Problems of coordination are difficult because of the loose connections between classrooms and schools.

Within no clear answers, educators must understand and act upon the tension between change and stability. Sensitivity to the school's various constituencies, the changes, and the particular social system is essential. But each course of action will be different because situational factors vary.

People may engage in innovative activity for many reasons. Such activities are both rewarding and costly. Because of the dynamics of the change process, these rewards and costs vary over time. What is rewarding at one time becomes costly at another.

Many innovations are modified as teachers adapt new technologies to their classroom realities. This is so because innovations are often underdeveloped and are subject to different interpretations and because new ideas are mediated by different teacher styles.

Ideas and people from outside the school system can be powerful initiators of school improvement, provided that they identify with the realities of schools and are willing to adapt to local conditions.

Information that relates to teachers' real classroom situations and their support for innovation is a necessary prerequisite for instruction-focused school improvement (p. 37).

423. McLaughlin, Milbrey Wallin. Implementation as mutual adaptation: Change in classroom organization. Teachers College Record, 1976, 77(3), 339-351. Reprinted in D. Mann (1978, pp. 19-31). [S, Cl, Lin]

The amorphous yet highly complex nature of classroom organization projects tends to require or dictate an adaptive implementation strategy that permits goals and methods to be reassessed, refined, and made explicit during the course of implementation, and that fosters 'learning-by-doing' (p. 348).

We found that all successfully implemented projects in our study went through a process of mutual adaptation to some extent (p. 349).

Interprets data collected for the Rand Corporation study of federal programs supporting educational change, particularly the projects involving classroom organization.

See Mann (1978) for more annotation.

424. McLaughlin, Milbrey Wallin. Implementation of ESEA Title I: A problem of compliance. In D. Mann (Ed.), Making change happen? New York: Teachers College Press, 1978; pp. 162-180. [S, Lin]

See Mann (1978) for annotation.

425. McMillan, Charles B. Organizational change in schools: Bedford-Stuyvesant. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1975, 11(4), 437-453. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Env, Lin, OD]

This article reports on the failure of a university-based educational change project that sought to change one junior high school in Bedford-Stuyvesant "into a school of unusual merit in the education of disadvantaged children." In their efforts at improving teacher-learning from 1966 to 1968, the New York University Clinic for Learning planners relied on two generally accepted theories of planned organizational change: subordinate participation in relevant decision-making processes and the importance of leadership behavior as exhibited by the change agent; and two widely regarded objectives for educational reform: namely, increasing total community involvement and effecting broad social change. The author uses data from personal interviews and project literature to evaluate the ways in which the Clinic applied (and failed to apply) these theories, and uses the data further to clarify the theoretical bases of the propositions themselves in relation to OD in schools. The study concludes that organizational change theories--if used wisely--would be suitable for reaching the goals of improved teaching-learning sought for the schools, but would not be useful in fundamentally increasing community participation or using schools to effect social change--goals that are obstructed by a larger political reality. (author's abstract, quoted by permission of JAI Press.)

426. Mechanic, David. Sources of power of lower participants in complex organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1962, 7(1), 349-364. [N, OrF, Mot]

This paper explores various factors that account for the power of secretaries, hospital attendants, prison inmates, and other lower participants within organizations. Power is seen as resulting from access to and control over persons, information, and instrumentalities. Among the variables discussed affecting power are normative definitions, perception of legitimacy, exchange, and coalitions. Personal attributes related to power include commitment, effort, interest, willingness to use power, skills, and attractiveneses. Finally, various attributes of social structure are discussed which also help to account for the power of lower participants: time spent in the organization, centrality of position, duality of power structures and replaceability of persons. (author's abstract)

For other writings on power and other motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

427. Merry, Uri, and Melvin E. Allerhand. Developing teams and organizations--A practical handbook for managers and consultants. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1977. [N, Int, Tea]

Contains exercises.

428. Meyer, John W. and Brian Rowan. Institutionalized organizations: Formal structure as myth and ceremony. American Journal of Sociology, 1977, 83, 440-463. [S, OrF]

When organizational structure is viewed as a dramatization of environmental myths, a new explanation can be made of the lack of correspondence between formal structure and actual activity, the well-known "loose coupling" characteristics of organizations.

429. Meyer, John W. and Brian Rowan. The structure of educational organizations. In M.W. Meyer and associates, Environments and organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978; pp. 78-109. [S, OrF]

Evidence suggests that educational organizations lack internal coordination. This is especially true of the content and methods of what is presumably their central activity -- instruction. Such organizations are "loosely-coupled," which means that structure is disconnected from capacity, and activity is disconnected for its effects. The problem of this paper is to explain how organizations with few controls over their central activity persist so stably, and to explain how implicit coordination is achieved. Areas of needed research are pointed out. (ERIC abstract)

430. Meyer, John W., W. Richard Scott, Sally Cole, and Jo-Ann K. Intili. Instructional dissensus and institutional consensus in schools. In M.W. Meyer and associates, Environments and organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1978; pp. 233-263. [S, OrF]

We can summarize the findings very simply. First, there may or may not be a good deal of agreement in the whole educational system between principals and superintendents in describing typical district organizational and educational policies. But within this larger frame, agreement between principals and superintendents in the same district is quite limited. Second, and similarly, the particular level of agreement distinctive to principals in the same district, in describing district rules or educational policies, is very low. Moreover, the more influential district offices do not exercise their influence through regular bureaucratic channels and do not impose greater uniformity on their schools. Third, whatever generalized agreements there are in the whole educational system between teachers and principals in describing school and district policies, the level of specific agreements distinctive to teacher and principals in particular schools is usually rather limited (although higher than that between principals and superintendents). Fourth, and similarly, the teachers within a given school exhibit relatively little agreement in describing school

> and classroom policies (although more than principals within districts). Agreement is somewhat higher in reporting on the environment, matters concerned with funding, and areas of obvious interdependence. Also, teachers who are more interdependent agree somewhat more than independent teachers in describing school policies and practices.
>
> These findings are surprising because they concern reports about organizational rules and practices, not individual attitudes. The school system as an organization appears to have very weak links, especially so far as rules and practices relating to instruction are concerned.
>
> What do these findings mean? They clearly indicate that schools are not *functionally differentiated*, *coordinated organizations*, *or even segmental*, *coordinated organizations*, with respect to the structuring of instructional work. . . .
>
> The findings also indicate that schools and districts are not simply *segmental decentralized organizations*, either. In such a situation, there would be considerable homogeneity and agreement in reporting the absence of central school and district rules and policies. We find, rather, that various participants in these systems do report varying levels of central rules and policies but *do not agree* in reporting their presence or absence in particular schools or districts.
>
> We are left with the idea that schools and districts are *institutionalized organizations* and are *loosely coupled* so far as technical educational work is concerned. . . . Instructional work tends to go on beyond the purview of the formal organization structure of the school and district. Policies exist at one level without implementation at other levels. . . .
>
> The solution we propose to the problem of the success and stability of educational organizations is that they are highly *institutionalized*, as a structural form, in society. Elaborate understandings define schools as essential--and equally elaborate rules accredit particular schools. The status of teacher is defined, prescribed, and credentialed. Student participation in built into the educational requirements of state law and employment practice. Principal and district-level roles are defined in, made necessary by, and funded from the wider social context of community opinion and state law. How do these broader understandings and rules--many of them taking the form of legal prescriptions--affect the structure and functioning of individual school organizations? By determining the conditions of their survival. If a school maintains general structural conformity to the societal rules and understandings defining educational systems, it is likely to survive and prosper. If it does not, support--both fiscal and moral--will be withdrawn. Thus it comes about the *school and district organizational sturcture have primary importance as internal reflections of institutionalized rules of the wider state and society*. . . . The formal structure of the system--the reflection of the wider rules of education--is not loosely, but very tightly coupled (pp. 257-260).

431. Miles, Matthew B. On temporary systems. In M.B. Miles (Ed.), Innovation in education. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964; pp. 437-490. [S, Int]

Temporary systems can be used to bring about change in persons, groups, and organizations. Permanent systems, carrying out routine activites, find it difficult to accomplish change. Temporary systems (workshops, consultant-client relationships, etc.) are effective mechanisms for inducing change, and they can be differentiated as to function of treatment, re-education, or education. Initial characteristics of temporary systems are: they expect to terminate at a specific time or after the occurrence of some specific event; initial goal is clearly defined; personnel classes to compose the system are closely specified; participants are on a cultural island; limiting the number of members and the physical location of the system facilities goal accomplishment. Process characteristics include a narrowed time perspective and increased use of directed energy, redefined goals, participant freedom from usual role conflicts, encouragement of special communication, an increasing sense of involvement, and development of new behavioral norms and patterns. Output characteristics include continuing changes in individuals' attitudes, knowledge, and behavior, altered interpersonal relationships, and action decisions. Problems associated with temporary systems are: participants may feel overloaded and need decompression time; unattainable goals may be sought; demanding process skills may not be provided; short-term isolation may generate long-term alienation; and linkage failures between the temporary and permanent systems may nullify temporary accomplishments. -- NIMH (1971).

432. Miles, Matthew B. Planned change and organizational health: Figure and ground. In R.O. Carlson, A. Gallagher, Jr., M.B. Miles, R.J. Pellegrin, and E.M. Rogers (Eds.), Change processes in the public schools. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1965; pp. 11-34. Available in photocopy from the Center. [S, Int, OrF]

Preoccupied with the efficacy of the innovation itself, those concerned with innovation have tended to neglect the readiness of a specific organization to absorb an innovation. Healthy organizational factors related to innovation are: system goals are clear, reasonable, and possible; inter- and intra-organizational communication is relatively distortion-free, vertically and horizontally; distribution of influence is equitable, and subordinates can influence upward; resources, especially personnel, are used effectively and no one feels [he or she is] fighting the organization; the organization is cohesive; it is innovative and tends to diversity itself; it is autonomous; it can make adaptations when environmental demands and organizational resources do not match; and it has well-developed structures for sensing and dealing with problems. Educational organizations are inherently somewhat unhealthy and suffer from goal ambiguity, lay-professional control problems, and other difficulties. Specific methods for improving organizational health are suggested; [all employ] self-study, relational emphasis, increased data flow, norms [supporting change], temporary system approach, and expert facilitation. -- NIMH (1971).

433. Miles, Matthew B. Critique: Diffusing OD in schools. Education and Urban Society, 1976, 8(2), 242-254. [S, Lin, OD]

Several things affect diffusion rates of OD in schools: (1) Direct exposure of administrators to OD learning experiences. (2) Problems of incentives. "School systems need to know with some assurance that the substantial investments of time and money involved in OD will not only make life better in some general sense, but will reduce bureaucratic costs" (p. 252). (3) Presence of practitioner advocates. "In many respects, the diffusion of a complex technology such as OD to any organization, let alone one with the innovation-retardant properties of schools, rests very centrally on the presence of a specially interested group of practitioners with a stake in perpetuating themselves" (p. 245). (4) Quality of information available concerning OD efforts.

434. Miles, Matthew B. Learning to work in groups: A practical guide for members and trainers. (2nd ed.) New York: Teachers College Press, Columbia University, 1981. [SN, Int, Tea]

Expanded version of a classic comprehensive guide to developing group training programs. Includes over 150 activities and 250 references.

435. Miles, Raymond E. and Howard R. Rosenberg. The human resources approach to management: Second-generation issues. Organizational Dynamics, 1982, 10(3), 26-41. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

Despite persistent skepticism, the human resources approach to management has now provided the basic conceptual foundation for more than 100 revolutionary and successful new-plant designs. In fact, basic human resources management principles emphasizing work team self-management have been honed to the point that solutions to most "first generation" structure and process problems are now well understood and widely diffused. Thus the issue for the 1980s is not whether the human resources approach works, but how its concepts can be extended to solve the key second-generation problem--"how to utilize the surplus capabilities that arise once new-design operations are mastered."

Miles and Rosenberg follow a second-generation new plant through the rapid and highly effective application of well-tested human resources design concepts. Explorations of a lengthy list of new growth opportunities are detailed in their article, and a logical extension of the human resources theory of management emerges. The argument advanced is that while first-generation plants sought to bring work teams to the point that the team itself plays the role of first-level supervision, second-generation plants must seek to bring work teams into the management of the business and its operation--bringing all aspects of cost analysis and control into the purview of the team. With full responsibility for cost analysis and control, work teams can begin to play the role of captive subcontractors. The authors explore the implications of this solution to second-generation human resources problems--implications involving a total design of the organization and management roles. -- abstract by the editors of Organizational Dynamics. Reprinted, by permission of the publisher, from Raymond E. Miles and Howard R. Rosenberg, The human resources approach to management: Second-generation issues, Organizational Dynamics, 1982, vol. 10, copyright 1982 by AMACOM, a division of American Management Associations, New York. All rights reserved.

436. Miller, James Grier. Living systems. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1978. [N, OrF, Env]

The general living systems theory which this book presents is a conceptual system concerned primarily with concrete systems which exist in space-time. Complex strutures which carry out living processes I believe can be identified at seven hierarchical levels--cell, organ, organism, group, organization, society, and supranational system. My central thesis is that systems at all these levels are open systems composed of subsystems which process inputs, throughputs, and outputs of various forms of matter, energy, and information. I identify 19 critical subsystems whose processes are essential for life, some of which process matter or energy, some of which process information, and some of which process all three. Together they make up a living system. . . (p. 1).

This book is an effort to integrate all the social, biological, and physical sciences that apply to structure or process at any of the seven levels. Physiology, biochemistry, genetics, pharmacology, medicine, economics, political science, anthropology, medicine, economics, political science, anthropology, sociology, and psychology are all almost entirely relevant. Physical science and engineering also contribute. Logic, mathematics, and statistics yield methods, models, and simulations, including some involving the relatively new approaches of cybernetics and information theory (p. 4). Quoted with permission.

Miller postulates two subsystems that process both matter-energy and information: (1) reproducer and (2) boundary; eight that process matter-energy: (3) ingestor, (4) distributor, (5) converter, (6) producer, (7) matter-energy storage, (8) extruder, (9) motor, and (10) supporter; and nine that process information: (11) input transducer, (12) internal transducer, (13) channel and net, (14) decoder, (15) associator, (16) memory, (17) decider, (18) encoder, and (19) output transducer.

Chapter 8 is on the organism, such a the individual human, Chapter 9 the group, Chapter 10 the organization, Chapter 11 the society, and Chapter 12 the supranational system.

437. Mills, Peter K. and Newton Margulies. Toward a core of typology of service organizations. Academy of Management Review, 1980, 5(2), 255-265. [N, OrF]

Typologies of organizations have often failed to consider the special character of service organizations. A core typology for service organizations is developed based on the personal interface between the client-customer and the service organization. The typology, which classifies 3 types of service organizations as maintenance-interactive, task-interactive, and professional-interactive, is based on 7 underlying dimensions of the interface between clients or customers and service organizations. . . . 1. information, 2. decision, 3. time, 4. problem awareness, 5. transferability, 6. power, and 7. attachment. (abstract from INFO data base)

438. Milstein, Mike M. Developing a renewal team in an urban school district. Theory Into Practice, 1979, 18(4) 106-113. [S, Int, OrF, Env, Lin, OD]

The Buffalo (New York) Public School District was presented with a court order to desegregate its schools. In 1977, as a result, the Buffalo district established the School Improvement Resource Team (SIRT). Milstein and Lafornara (1980; see at end of this annotation) say:

> . . . in urban school environments, . . . invitations are not readily forthcoming. . . . schools needing help are usually identified by central office administrators. . . . Efforts are [then] made to (1) explain how SIRT functions, (2) clarify . . . the issues at the school, and (3) obtain faculty-wide commitment. . . . SIRT's experience is that the involvement of entire school faculties is not practical, since interventions usually take place after school or at week-end sessions. SIRT's response . . . has been to rely on volunteers who are vitally interested in the issues involved. As a result, SIRT sessions typically draw from a minimum of four or five teachers up to a maximum of about 25 percent of a faculty.

In the spring of 1977, 16 applicants for membership in SIRT were accepted out of 65 who applied. The group received three weeks of initial training that summer. In August, SIRT conducted one-day workshops in three high schools and a week of training for "liaison teams" that would conduct in-service activities in eight other schools.

Beginning in the fall of 1977, SIRT has met monthly for further training, to renew its internal dynamics, and to deal with business affairs. In the spring of 1978, 10 of 45 new applicants were added to SIRT. The entire group received three weeks of training that second summer and another two weeks in the summer of 1979. SIRT conducted numerous interventions in the spring of 1978 and throughout the 1978-79 school year.

Student Relations Committee. SRC contains about 50 students from three academic high schools undergoing the greatest extent of desegregation. The students, their teacher-advisers, and a SIRT sub-team meet monthly for all-day sessions to develop skill and deal with issues such as discipline, student morale, teacher-student relations, school spirit, and class-cutting. SRC began in 1978; it has replenished its ranks several times.

High Schools. After the first workshops with high schools in 1977, SIRT discovered it would have to rely on volunteers at a time when the teachers' union was urging its members to resist volunteering for any projects. Nevertheless, as many as 25 percent of a school's teachers volunteered to attend after-school meetings. At one school confronted with severe disciplinary problems, teachers at first focused their efforts on "hall sweeps" in which groups of staff members walked the halls to get students back into class. The result was an immediate improvement in discipline and more favorable perception of SIRT activities by other staff members. Volunteers doubled. A second high school was slated to be closed and reopened as an elementary school. After the court order, SIRT turned its efforts to helping the school faculty to buoy up its sagging morale and minimize the impact of the pending closing on the educational programs. The school is now undergoing a gradual phase-out instead of the abrupt one-year closing originally prescribed.

Elementary schools. SIRT's work with elementary schools began in response to requests from schools that had one or more faculty who were members of SIRT. In one school, the staff asked for process help in refining their individualized mathematics program. A second school was faced with absorbing a junior high-school staff. Teachers and ancillary staff met for a semester to develop new policies, disciplinary procedures, and report-card procedures.

During the spring of 1980, SIRT was called upon to help three elementary schools slated for closing. SIRT trained school-based liaison teams to help the schools close in orderly fashion.

See also M.M. Milstein. Evolution of an internal change team: Expectations, design, and reality. Paper read at meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Toronto, 1978. Also M.M. Milstein and Paul A. Lafornara. The institutionalization of an internal change team: The Buffalo experience. Paper presented to annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, 1980.

439. Milstein, Mike M. and James A. Belasco. Educational administration and the behavioral sciences: A systems perspective. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1973. [S, Ef, Int, OrF]

A collection of papers compiled from the point of view of general systems theory. Parts of the book are entitled: I. The language of systems; II. Inputs; III. Thruput processes, and IV. Outputs.

440. Milstein, Mike M., Charles S. Lusthaus, and Evelyn W. Lusthaus. Conflict in education. In M.M. Milstein (Ed.), Schools, conflict, and change. New York: Teachers College Press, 1980; pp. 5-14. [S, Int, OrF, Env]

The chapter defines conflict and provides a framework for dealing with the chief sources of conflict in education. Sources of conflict include: incompatible goals, shared resources, and interdependent activities. The authors describe how schools usually respond to those sources of conflict and offer suggestions for change via a conceptual map.

441. Milstein, Mike M., Dorothy Smith, and Brendan W. Reddy. The shifting nature of OD contracts: A case study. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1979, 15(2), 179-193. [S, OD]

An organization development (OD) intervention was undertaken in an educational setting. It began at the level of formal goal-setting and action planning and then expanded to deal with emerging intergroup conflicts and an organizational underworld of unexamined and often unshared philosophies, beliefs, and attitudes regarding the role of formal education in society. The consultants were able to keep pace by diagnosing changes in the client system and by renegotiating the contract accordingly. Reddy criticizes the intervention as being insufficient and inaccurate. The implicit contracts were omitted, and possible collusion with various factions in the system was ignored. (abstract from INFO data base)

442. Mirvis, Phillip H. and David N. Berg (Eds.). Failures in organization development and change: Cases and essays for learning. New York: Wiley Interscience, 1977. [SN, Int, OrF, OD]

Contains 11 articles and reports of failures of efforts to change organizations. Discussions help the reader to avoid the errors.

443. Mohrman, Allan M., Jr., Robert A. Cooke, and Susan Albers Mohrman. Participation in decision making: A multidimensional perspective. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1978, 14(1), 13-29. [S, Int, OrF, Mot, OD]

The purpose of this paper is to illustrate the importance of treating participation in decision making in a multidimensional manner. Questionnaire results indicate that participation in different decision domains is differentially related to teacher satisfaction. A practical implication is that efforts to increase teacher influence should focus on particular kinds of decisions. (authors' abstract)

See also Cooke and Coughlan (1979) and Duncan, Mohrman, Mohrman, Cooke, and Zaltman (1977).

444. Morgan, David L. and Duane F. Alwin. When less is more: School size and student social participation. Social Psychology Quarterly, 1980, 43(2), 241-252. [S, Ef, OrF]

Data analysis revealed a strong negative relation between school size and rates of participation in extracurricular activities. In particular, activities central to the school but limited in the number who could participate (such as journalistic activities) showed the strongest "manning" effects--that is, over-manning in large schools and under-manning in small schools. Activities not central to the school and limited in the number who could participate (such as debate) showed the weakest manning effects. Activities not central and open to unlimited participation (such as hobby clubs) showed a reverse manning effect--higher rates of participation in the larger schools.

445. Morris, Kenneth T. and Kenneth M. Cinnamon. *Handbook of verbal group exercises*. St. Louis, MO: Applied Skills Press, n.d. [SN, Int, OD]

An encyclopedia system listing alphabetically the goals and purposes of each group exercise is used instead of chapters. -- Publisher's blurb.

See also Kenneth T. Morris and Kenneth M. Cinnamon. *Handbook of nonverbal group exercises*. St. Louis, MO: Applied Skills Press, n.d.

446. Morris, William C., and Marshall Sashkin. *Organization behavior in action: Skill building experiences*. St. Paul, MN: West, 1975. [N, Int]

Contains exercises.

447. Morrish, Ivor. *Aspects of educational change*. New York: Wiley, 1976. [S, Int, OrF]

Morrish presents a host of mechanisms and processes related to school change, including such issues as: sources and types of innovation, agents typically involved in change, system features of schools that are related to change, social psychological characteristics of both resisters and innovators, traits and functions of innovative educational institutions, procedures for planning and implementing change, and methods of evaluating the change process. He does all of this adequately, albeit tersely, without an abundance of jargon in just 178 pages including bibliography and index. . . . Morrish goes on to show how "creative changes" differ from "deficit changes." . . . Regretably, schools all too often innovate in response to deficit changes, and become involved all to seldom in creative changes. [The author] lists 24 reasons that creative changes in schools occur so infrequently and proceed so haltingly when they do. -- Richard A. Schmuck, *Review of Education*, 1977, 3(3), 215-225. Reprinted by permission of Redgrave Publishing Company.

448. Morrison, Peggy. Evaluation in OD: A review and an assessment. *Group and Organization Studies*, 1978, 3(1), 42-70. [N, Ev, OD]

The author reviewed OD evaluation as described in the literature and assessed twenty-six studies against Campbell and Stanley's twelve criteria for validity; only three met all criteria. The studies varied from highly rigorous, experimental designs to nondesigns totally inadequate for an assessment of validity. Most of the studies reviewed did not utilize designs rigorous enough to adequately determine the outcomes of the OD process. The present underdeveloped state of the art of OD evaluation demonstrates that practitioners must (1) determine appropriate measures for assessing; (2) develop more adequate instruments for measuring change related to OD; and (3) consistently utilize more rigorous designs for their studies. (author's abstract)

449. Morrison, Peggy. High technology, rapid change, and world competition in the eighties: The place for OD. Group and Organizational Studies, 1981, 6(4), 395-402. Followed by Hari Das. Relevance of current organization development values and assumptions to scarcity situations, pp. 402-409. Followed by comments by the editor. [N, Env, OD]

One could hardly expect to find two more apparently contradictory discussions than those printed above. . . . The fact is that the extreme situations portrayed by Morrison and by Das both exist and are easier to identify than is some mythical "average" scenario. Morrison's bright future for OD is tied to those highly advanced nations that can afford further rapid technological development. Not all such societies are Western; Japan and Singapore are good Asian examples. In fact, those countries may be more likely sites for Morrison's OD advances than the United States!

It is easy to name any number of countries that fit the gloommy future prophesied by Hari Das: the People's Republic of China, Bangladesh, the Sudan--the list is, sadly, far longer than the list of Morrison-type OD environments. We take issue not with the reality or likelihood of the situations Das defines, but with the inevitability--and desirability--of his prescriptions. He suggests that basic OD values are simply not appropriate for organizations--and societies--plagued by scarce resources. We suggest that this is not only untrue, but that the opposite is correct: It is in such situations that basic OD values are most needed--decision making shared at appropriate levels, win-win conflict processes, and emphasis on attaining multiple goals, among others. (Reprinted from comments by the editor on p. 410 of Group and Organization Studies, vol. 6, no. 4, copyright 1981 by University Associates, with permission of Sage Publicatoins, Inc.)

450. Munoz, Rocardo F., Lonnie R. Snowden, James G. Kelly, and associates. Social and psychological research in community settings. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1979. [SN, Int]

Scientific programs to help solve problems of mental and physical health, hospitalization, education, delinquency, and many others are increasingly being carried out in the community--in those natural, nonlaboratory settings where the problems occur, such as classrooms, psychiatric wards, and neighborhoods. These programs characteristically use the community itself--its social processes and physical features--to bring about beneficial change, both in people's behavior and in their surroundings. How are research programs in community settings planned and implemented? How successful are they in helping people toward well-being and personal adjustment? How are changes actually brought about and documented?

In answering such questions, this new book provides information and practical guidance for all professionals interested in conducting or working in community programs. To illustrate the aims, processes, and results of such programs, the book presents eight successful community-oriented research projects, described especially for this volume by the original investigators. -- Publisher's blurb.

451. Murnane, Richard J. Interpreting the evidence on school effectiveness. Teachers College Record, 1981, 83(1), 19-35. [S, Ef, OrF]

The purpose of this article is to provide an interpretation of school effectiveness research that explains puzzles in the empirical findings and provides a coherent perspective from which to ask new research and policy questions. At this point it may be helpful to recapitulate. . . . (1) There is compelling evidence that schooling makes a difference in determining the cognitive skills of children. . . . (2) The primary resources that are consistently related to student achievement are teachers and other students. . . . (3) The central school resources--teachers and students--will respond to any changes in the institutional rules, customs, or contract provisions that determine the allocation of resources. . . . (4) Better data and more research will help us to learn more about the relationships between school resources and student achievement in ongoing educational systems. . . . (5) A central problem in improving schools is to develop mechanisms for incorporating into the decision-making process information about the priorities of the key actors, and consequently about their likely behavioral responses (p. 33).

452. Murray, Donald G. Organizational development training for adopting multiunit structure: A comparative case study of two elementary schools. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1973. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The purpose of this study was to illuminate . . . the processes of change toward the multiunit structure or organization in two schools that received organization development (OD) training. Two years after the training, interviews taken at each school disclosed wide differences in the collaboration among staff members and the form of unitized arrangements. One became a full-fledged multiunit school, with team teaching, while the other went back to a more traditional, self-contained organizational arrangement. Several important reasons for this difference were discovered. . . .

The most important finding was the difference between schools in the speed with which they moved into unitized arrangements. The school that started collaborative arrangements soon after the training and experienced mixed success with these structures eventually returned to a more traditional method for providing instruction. However, the adopting school moved slowly into new arrangements, [improved the quality of] its internal functioning, and used the organization development trainers in more effective ways and to a greater extent. (author's abstract)

453. Murrell, Kenneth and Peter B. Vaill. *Organization development: A bibliography of sources and applications*. Washington, DC: Organization Development Division, American Society for Training and Development, 1975. [SN, Int, OrF, OD, Bib]

400 entries.

454. Nagle, John M. and James H. Balderson. *Group problem solving: The D-A-P approach*. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1974. ERIC order number ED 089 449. Available in photocopy from the Center. [SN, OrF]

Presents a systematic procedure for group problem solving comprising phases for generating designative information (D), appraisive information (A), and prescriptive information (P). In other words, these phases are problem identification, plan development, and implementation. The booklet gives detailed substeps within each of the major phases.

455. National Institute of Mental Health. *Planning for creative change in mental health services: A distillation of principles on research utilization: Volume II--Bibliography with annotations*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1971. (DHEW Publication No. HSM 71-9061). [SN, Int, Lin, Bib]

Organized according to two classifications: topic (change, communication, groups, organizational development, etc.) and type (case study, demonstration, empirical study, exhortation, progress report, etc.).

456. Nelson, Jack E. Collegial supervision in multiunit schools: A study of an inservice program for primary teachers in newly formed units in schools which have received two forms of organizational development training. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1971. [S, Cl, Int, OrF, OD]

[The] two types of training [given] were Organizational Development training (OD) and Group Development training (GD). . . . The central feature of this dissertation was to explore the effects of . . . Collegial Supervision. Teachers were taught to record objective data while observing a colleague's classroom and were instructed in effective techniques for reporting the data back to the collegue observed. This study tests whether these various combinations of training in OD, GD, and Collegial Supervision differed significantly in their impact on the teachers involved and their students. Data from the OD schools supported [a predicted] norm of openness. Data from the GD schools supported [predicted clarity of] decision-making and [predicted satisfaction with] working conditions. Of six other hypotheses for the OD schools, four [outcomes] were in the predicted direction. Data from the GD schools indicated that three of the remaining five were in the predicted direction. Further results indicated that collegial supervision was not an effective means for improving pupil attitudes. (author's abstract)

457. Nelson, Margaret. Attitudes of intermediate schoolchildren toward substitute teachers who receive feedback on pupil-desired behavior. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1972. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, Lin]

This study proposed to measure difference in pupil reactions to substitute teachers by systematically using pupil feedback to modify substitute teacher behavior. The hypothesis was that if two groups of substitute teachers frequently administered an attitudinal scale to intermediate grade (4-6) children, there would be more behavior modification on the part of the group that received feedback about the scale than on the part of the group that received no feedback. . . . [Feedback was given teachers via telephone.]

On the basis of the findings, the investigator believes school districts could profitably conduct inservice training workshops for substitute teachers, using as a focus the types of behavioral items on the scale used in this study. Personnel coordinators could establish feedback loops to enable substitute teachers to benefit from evaluation available to classroom teachers. Substitute associations could modify existing handbooks to include interpersonal relationship techniques as well as district policy. Providing substitute teachers with systematic feedback should benefit all those involved in the substitute teacher experience. (excerpted from the author's abstract)

For similar studies, see Burns (1977), Daw and Gage (1967), Gage, Runkel, and Chatterjee (1963), Hovenier (1966), Schmuck (1973), and Tuckman, McCall, and Hyman (1969).

458. Newell, Terry. Organization development in schools. American Education, 1973, 9(10), 28-32. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Reviews OD interventions in schools to 1973 and points out variables which seem to lead to a successful OD effort. Encourages training to produce professionally competent OD specialists and creating or expanding OD networks to facilitate the sharing of ideas and resources.

459. Nielsen, H.D. and D.H. Kirk. Classroom Climates. In H.J. Walbert (Ed.), Evaluating educational performance. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1974. [S, Cl, Ev]

The instruments available for assessing learning climates are many and varied. All in all, they represent a diversity of measurement techniques and foci that provide useful information on the significant variables of the learning environment.

460. Nielsen, Warren R. and John R. Kimberly. Designing assessment strategies for organization development. Human Resource Management, 1976, 15(1), 32-39. [N, Ev, Int, OD]

Argues that systematic empirical assessment of organizational development (OD) interventions is important and can have benefits both for subject organizations and organizational researchers. Discusses suggested criteria for effective assessment of OD interventions. -- JG in ERIC data base.

461. Nirenberg, John. A comparison of the management systems of traditional and alternative public high schools. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1977, 13(1), 86-104. [S, OrF]

Examines the managerial systems and organizational climates of alternative and traditional public high schools. Three of the four administrative variables show a distinct difference between the two types of schools. (author's abstract)

462. Nord, Walter R. Job satisfaction reconsidered. American Psychologist, 1977, 32(12), 1026-1035. [N, Ev, Mot]

Six latent assumptions underlying current research on job satisfaction are discussed, and their role in producing incomplete and unrealistic approaches to job satisfaction is analyzed. It is suggested that these assumptions have induced researchers to (a) overlook important barriers to job satisfaction and sources of intrinsic satisfaction, (b) underestimate the importance of extrinsic sources of satisfaction, and (c) ignore the powerlessness-alienation hypothesis. New topics for research and new roles for psychologists are suggested as steps toward the development of more comprehensive approaches to job satisfaction. (author's abstract)

463. Owens, Robert G. Organizational behavior in education. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1981. [S, Int, OrF, Lea, Mot]

This text contains chapters on theory, social systems, sociotechnical sytems, motivation, leadership, climate, change, and conflict; also topics on human resources management, participative decision making, and human resource accounting.

464. Packard, John S. Changing to a multiunit school. In W.W. Charters, Jr. and others. The process of planned change in the school's instructional organization. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1973; pp. 105-121. Reprinted in J.V. Baldridge and T.E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1975; pp. 393-408. [S, Int, OrF]

[There was a] lack of activity on the part of these schools that might conceivably qualify as solutions to problems. That is, there was little evidence to indicate that problems had been solved by the application of special techniques, logic, manipulation, or by systematic treatment. Moreover, although most problems received some attention by schools, there was little evidence to show that many had been solved (p. 120).

465. Parish, Ralph and Richard I. Arends. Why innovative programs are discontinued. Educational Leadership, 1983, 40(4), 62-65. [S, Int, Lin]

In the five Midwest schools studied, the National Diffusion Network Facilitators did not attend to organizational features or political issues, and the change projects they introduced in the schools disappeared within two years.

466. Pasmore, William A. The Michigan ICL study revisited: An alternative explanation of the results. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1976, 12(2), 245-251. Bowers's rejoinder follows on p. 252. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

In the survery feedback treatment, all employees in an organization completed the pretest and took part in the organization development program through the feedback-action planning process. In the other intervention conditions, all employees completed the pretest; however, while some of the employees in the other intervention treatments received tabulated survey data, only top management groups participated in the designated interventions if an intervention occurred at all. It is possible that the negative results obtained for the whole system groups receiving treatments other than the survey feedback intervention can be explained by the expectations of change created in these groups by the pretest activity. . . .

For the employees not receiving the survey feedback intervention, the momentum for change created by the pretest was reversed when they observed that, from their perspective, nothing was done with their pretest data. Thus, the lower scores obtained on the posttest reflected employee dissatisfaction with the survey process and the apparent disregard by the capstone groups for their opinions. This entire process is similar to that which might be predicted by the theory of "Revolution of Rising Expectations" posited by some sociologists to explain riotous collective behavior. If this theory is correct, and if the expectations created by the pretest and subsequently destroyed by the filing away of the data did in fact affect organizational climate, one would expect to find that those organizations that did the least with the pretest data would show the greatest negative changes for the climate measure. This hypothesis is supported in four of the five treatment conditions other than survey feedback, with the most negative change in climate recorded in the "no treatment" group (p. 249). (Quoted by permission of JAI Press.)

467. Pasmore, William A., and John J. Sherwood (Eds.). Sociotechnical systems: A sourcebook. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1978. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

Designed for organization development consultants, researchers, managers and supervisors, management trainers and educators, and students of organization development and management, this book contains a variety of readings covering the theory and methods of sociotechnical systems work arrangements, summaries of current research and future perspectives, and a new theory to extend sociotechnical methods to nonindustrial organizations. . . .

Articles focus on such topics as the organization as an open system, sociotechnical system theory, sociotechnical diagnosis, change strategies, reviews of sociotechnical studies, suggestions for future research, and perspectives on sociotechnical systems. -- Publisher's blurb.

468. Pate, Larry E., Warren R. Nielsen, and Paula C. Bacon. Advances in research on organization development: Toward a beginning. Group and Organization Studies, 1977, 2(4), 449-460. [SN, OD]

This paper examines thirty-eight research studies that were conducted on various aspects of organization development (OD) technology. The studies are compared along eight dimensions. Problems associated with evaluating OD and the limited amount of OD research are discussed. It is argued that more systematic, longitudinal research on OD is needed. (authors' abstract)

469. Patten, Thomas H., Jr. (Ed.) OD--Emerging dimensions and concepts. Madison, WI: American Society for Training and Development, 1973. [N, Int, OrF, OD, Bib]

A bibliography with commentary.

470. Paul, Christian F. and Albert C. Gross. Increasing productivity and morale in a municipality: Effects of organizational development. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1981, 17(1), 59-78. [N, Int, OrF, OD]

A year-long organization development project in the Communications and Electrical Division of the City of San Diego was completed and assessed. The goals of the project were to increase productivity and to improve morale without allowing either goal to interfere with achievement of the other. The treatment group received an intervention that consisted of personal interviews of all employees, team-building workshops, counseling, process consultancy, and training in management skills. Measures of productivity (number of tasks performed, efficiency in both time and money) and job satisfaction (three surveys: absenteeism, turnover, grievances filed) as well as customer satisfaction (mail and telephone surveys) were taken both before and during the intervention period. Data from suitable comparison groups were collected for several of the dependent measures. The results lent strong support to the notion that both productivity and morale can be increased by means of organization development techniques. (authors' abstract, quoted by permission of JAI Press.)

471. Pellegrin, Roland J. Some organizational characteristics of multiunit schools. Technical Report No. 8. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational

Policy and Management, 1969. ERIC order number ED 049 553. Available in photocopy from the Center. Reprinted in J.V. Baldridge and T.E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1975; pp. 201-223. [S, Int, OrF]

. . . multiunit schools are successful in encouraging the establishment of some collaborative activity. Interdependence relationships are nonetheless confined to the members of one's own unit. . . . it is possible for virtually all the relationships to be essential ones in one's own unit, while another unit in the same school has a pattern containing a mixture of essential and dependence relationships as well as a lack of indicated relationships of either type. Thus, while some collaborative activity is found in all schools, its extent is uneven, reflecting differential success in the development of interdependence relationships (p. 205 of Baldridge and Deal's volume).

472. Pennings, Johannes M. Dimensions of organizational influence and their effectiveness correlates. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1976, 21(4), 688-699. [N, OrF]

In this study of 40 widely dispersed offices of a large brokerage firm, the results "support the position of Likert, Argyris, and Chandler in suggesting that a participative, autonomous, and decentralized organization is more effective. The table shows that if the influence is dispersed, the office will be superior on the five indicators of organizational effectiveness. . . . The total amount of control is evidently conducive to organizational effectiveness and corroborates Tannenbaum's results on control in organizations. However, the results do not substantiate his de-emphasis of influence differences in complex organizations. If the influence difference is large, the employees do express anxiety, and productivity tends to decline disproportionately. Participativeness shows a strikingly high negative correlation with decline in total production. Finally, organizational autonomy is related to morale, consistent with the well-known findings of Pelz that supervisors with upward influence had more satisfied employees than superiors without such influence" (pp. 694-695).

473. Perrow, Charles. Demystifying organizations. In R.C. Sarri and Y. Hasenfeld (Eds.), Management of human services. New York: Columbia University Press, 1978; pp. 105-120. [N, Int, OrF, Env, Mot]

[Our] theories are mystifications of reality and need to be demystified. . . . The reality being asserted in mainstream theory is that organizations are, or can be, rational instruments of announced goals. Of course some mainstream theories such as systems and human relations theories oppose a mechanical, rationalistic notion of organizations when they stress natural adaptations, human needs, informal groups, and so on. But these natural characteristics are perceived as constraints on the organization, as problems to be overcome, or opportunities to be utilized in making the organization more effective (rational) in achieving its legitimate, announced goals. The hospital should cure, the training program train, the prison reform, the welfare program help people to become independent. Deviations from these goals are due to such things as poor motivation, faulty communications, misperceived goals, poor coordination, inadequate resources, poor management, or faulty structures, according to most theories. . . .

But an alternative position is worth exploring: announced goals are one of the least important constraints on organizational behavior; organizations can be rational instruments of announced goals only to a very limited extent. They have more important things to do. Instead, organizations are resources for a variety of group interests within and without the organization; they are used by a multitude of interests, and the announced purposes, while they must be met to some limited degree in most cases, largely serve as legitimating device for these interests, or a mystification of the reality. . . .

First, I will examine the environment of human service organizations, then the participants, and finally those processes labeled coordination, control, change, efficiency, and technology (pp. 105-107).

See also Cummings (1977) and Kouzes and Mico (1979).

474. Peters, David R. Organization change and development and related fields: A reader's guide to selected resources. Malibu, CA: School of Business and Management, Pepperdine University, 1982. [SN, Ev, Int, OrF, Env, Lea, Mot, Lin, Tea, OD, Bib]

Each entry is coded with a number and a letter: "1" for organizational change and development, including planned change, innovation, and OD; "2" for organizational behavior and applied behavioral science, including communication, motivation, decision making, leadership, influence, and conflict; "3" for management: functions, processes, and practices, including goal-setting; "4" for individual and small-group development, including personal growth, and interpersonal dynamics; "5" for diagnosis and consultation; "6" for interventions, change technologies, and action programs, including team-building, conflict resolution, survey feedback, participative management, motivational programs, quality of work life, and job design; "7" for evaluation; "A" for theory and concepts; "B" for "descriptive-case-application-technique-tool"; "C" for empirical research results; "D" for textbook review article; and "E" for collections of readings or mixtures of the other letter-codes. Also included are a list of periodicals, a list of sources of experiential exercises, and a list of other bibliographies.

475. Peters, Lynn H. and John F. McKenna. A structural approach to organization development in a university professional school. Group and Organization Studies, 1977, 2(2), 172-185. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The study provides a review of the literature, presents the background of the client system, and discusses the specifics of the intervention methodology as well as the results of the project. (authors' abstract)

476. Peters, Thomas J. Symbols, patterns, and settings: An optimistic case for getting things done. Organizational Dynamics, 1978, 7(2), 3-23. [N, Int, OrF, Lea]

Rules for managing change:

Rule	Interpretation
1. Spend time	Spending time exerts, in itself, a "claim" on the decision-making system.
2. Persist	Having more patience than other people often results in adoption of a chosen course of action.
3. Exchange status for substance	One of the most effective ways to gather support for programs is to reward allies with visible tokens of recognition.
4. Facilitate opposition participation	Often those outside the formal decision centers overestimate the feasibility of change; encouraged to participate, they will often become more realistic.
5. Overload the system	Bureaucracies chew up most projects, but on the other hand, some sneak through; merely launching more projects is likely to result in more successes.
6. Provide garbage cans	Organizations endlessly argue issues; to induce desired outcomes, put "throw-away" issues at the top of agendas (to absorb debate) saving substantive issues for later.
7. Manage unobtrusively	Certain actions can influence the organization pervasively but almost imperceptibly; moreover, the resulting changes will persist with little further attention.
8. Interpret history	By articulting a particular version of events, the leader can alter people's perception of what has been happening; whoever writes the minutes influences the outcome (p. 6).

(Reprinted, by permission of the publisher, from Thomas J. Peters, Symbols, patterns, and settings: An optimistic case for getting things done, Organizational Dynamics, 1978, vol. 7, copyright 1978 by ANACOM, a division of American Management Associations, New York. All rights reserved.)

477. Pfeiffer, J. William and John E. Jones (Eds.) Handbook of structured experiences for human relations training. (Vol. I through VIII). San Diego, Ca: University Associates, 1969-1981. [N, Int]

Simulations, exercises, and procedures for group facilitation selected for their "practicality, flexibility, workability, clarity, and adaptability."

Series includes: J.W. Pfeiffer and John E. Jones. Reference guide to handbooks and annuals (rev. ed.). San Diego: University Associates, 1981.

478. Pfeiffer, J. William and John E. Jones (Eds.) Annual handbook for group facilitators. University Associates, 1972 to present. San Diego, CA: [N, Int]

An annual compendium of new developments in group facilitation. Each volume contains sections on structured experiences (simulations, exercises, or procedures), instrumentation, lecturettes, theory and practice, resources, and book reviews.

479. Phelps, Jane H. and Richard I. Arends. Helping parents and educators to solve school problems together: An application of organization development. Technical report. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1973. Available from P.J. Runkel at the Center. Reprinted as "Bringing a school staff and parents into effective interaction" by Arends and Arends in Schmuck, Runkel, Arends, and Arends (1977, pp. 448-456). [S, Int, OrF, Env, Lin, OD]

During the 1971-72 school year, the authors and others joined a team from the Eugene Cadre of Organizational Specialists to facilitate conflict resolution at a beleaguered elementary school. About 90 parents at the elementary school attended informal neighborhood meetings in the fall of 1971 to discuss concerns they had with their school. The outgrowth of those meetings was the formation of a group that called itself the Parents' Advisory Committee.

Members of the cadre and others developed a design that had as its overall theme a confrontation between parents and teachers. Within the basic theme of confrontation were elements of training, data-feedback, and process-observation-and feedback. The macro-design included six stages:

1. Form and meet with a Steering Committee comprised of some teachers and a few parents to explain the macrodesign and get approval to proceed.

2. Give demonstrations of OD to the staff and to all interested parents so they could understand the goals and procedures of the intervention.

3. Train parents and staff separately in the skills of interpersonal communication and group problem solving, and help each group choose top-priority concerns. Collect data on impressions of intergroup climate and influence.

4. Bring the two groups together and feed back data on climate, concerns, and influence. Help the groups clarify intergroup communication and agree upon top-priority mutual concerns.

5. Form problem-solving groups of parents and teachers to design proposals to solve important mutual problems.

6. Bring all problem-solving groups together to share their proposals and to make decisions and plans for implementation.

Three kinds of outcomes were documented. The first had to do with implementation of proposals designed by the parent-staff problem-solving groups. Within a year, there were: (1) a new parent organization that brought parents into decision making about curriculum and staffing, (2) new forms of written communication from school to home, (3) improvements to the building and grounds, (4) parties for welcoming new and foreign families to the community and school, (5) many parent volunteers in classrooms and the library; and (6) an artist-in-residence program.

A second kind of outcome had to do with improvements in the interaction between staff and parents and in interactions among staff members. After the intervention, parents reported that they had better impressions of the school, that they could now get the information they wanted, and that they thought their ideas were welcomed by the staff. When asked about changes they saw in the school, more than two-thirds of the parents singled out the atmosphere as being very different.

The third kind of outcome concerned changes in perceived and attributed influence. Parents perceived an increase in their own influence after the intervention and did so without attributing less influence to the staff. Staff members, by contrast, didn't think they had gained or lost influence, but attributed more influence to parents. To both parents and the staff, the PTA in its new structure was the vehicle through which the total amount of influence available to be shared had been increased.

480. Piele, Philip K. Review and analysis of the role, activities, and training of educational linking agents. Eugene, OR: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 1975. ERIC Order No. ED 128 871. [S, Lin]

A 111-page review of recent research and experience.

481. Pincus, John. Incentives for innovation in the public schools. Review of Educational Research, 1974, 44(1), 113-144. [S, Int, Lin]

Section II discusses incentives to adopt innovation. Section III discusses the problems of implementation. Section IV suggests some implications for R&D policy. The general thesis of this paper is that the *market structure* of the public school "industry" has a major effect on *schools' decisions* to adopt innovations, and the *bureaucratic structure and incentives* of schools shape in specific ways *the transition from adopting innovations* to implementing them.

482. Pino, Rene, Ruth Emory, and Charles Jung. *Preparing educational training consultants*. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory, 1973. [S, Int, Lin]

A packaged program for training OD consultants for schools and districts.

483. Pondy, Louis R. Organizational conflict: Concepts and models. *Administrative Quarterly*, 1967, 12(2), 296-320. [N, OrF]

Three types of conflict among the subunits of formal organizations are identified: (1) bargaining conflict among the parties to an interest-group relationship; (2) bureaucratic conflict between the parties to a superior-subordinate relationship; and (3) systems conflict among parties to a lateral or working relationship. In each of the three cases, conflict is treated as a series of episodes including stages of latency, feeling, perception, manifestation, and aftermath. The organization's reaction to conflict in each case is analyzed using the Barnard-Simon model of inducements-contributions balance theory. Of particular interest is whether the organization members resolve conflicts by withdrawing from the organization, by altering the existing set of relationships, or by changing their values and behavior within the context of the existing relationships. (author's abstract)

484. Pondy, Louis R. Two faces of evaluation. In H.W. Melton and D. Watson (Eds.), *Accounting for social goals and social organization*. Columbus, OH: Grid Publishers, 1977. [N, Ev]

But the second-order effect of more sophisticated evaluation methods, I conjectured, might simply be to encourage further centralization and homogenization of social programming. We might better devote our energies to decentralizing and disseminating existing evaluation skills in a form that permits input of local idiosyncratic information, and indeed use by local officials. . . . One further side-benefit of decentralized evaluation: It would build formal, albeit simple, evaluation skills into the infrastructure of the society, not restrict them into an elite cadre of evaluation researchers, and thus permit formative evaluation to proceed continually. -- from a prepublication draft.

485. Poole, Edward Archie. A study of the effects of an organizational problem-solving intervention strategy on the development of self-renewing characteristics of a school faculty. Doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 1971. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

This study is a description of a five-phased organization development intervention strategy and an attempt to determine the direct and indirect effects of an organizational skill training program--emphasizing group communication, decision-making, and problem-solving--on the self-renewing characteristics of a school faculty. The intervention was successful in introducing communication and problem-solving skills into the daily activities of the school; however, the recognition and use of these skills was greater at the interpersonal level than the organizational level to move the school toward a state of self-renewal. Five problems developed that accounted for the hesitancy. They were: a process-content split; clarifying limitations of the interventions; unclarity of objectives of the program; teams of consultants and clients changed membership throughout; and unrealistic expectations of quick results by school people.

486. Porras, Jerry I. The comparative impact of different OD techniques and intervention intensities. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1979, 15(2), 156-178. [N, OD]

A wide range of organization development techniques has been developed but little has been done to compare their impact. It is expected that different techniques would affect organizational variables in unique ways. Some techniques would probably be more effective in changing certain variables than others. Similarly, interventions of varying intensities would also be expected to yield different results. This study attempts to assess the OD empirical research literature in an effort to determine the comparative impact of the more common change techniques and varying intervention intensities. Thirty-five empirical assessments of the impact of OD are used as the data source. Eleven hypotheses derived from the OD literature are proposed and tested. The findings indicate that most of the predictions are not supported by the available data. A discussion of the implications of these results is included. (author's abstract)

487. Porras, Jerry I. and Kerry Patterson. Assessing planned change. Group & Organization Studies, 1979, 4(1), 39-58. [SN, Ev]

In order for planned organizational change to advance in both theory and practice, there must be a concommitant advancement in the willingness and ability of change agents to assess the change process effectively. This paper explores the current OD assessment milieu and proposes a model to help clarify assessment. Each feature of the model is defined, and characteristic problems are discussed in light of current methods and theory. As a means of summary, guidelines are proposed to enhance the assessability of potential change activities. (authors' abstract)

488. Porterfield, Robert W. and Illah J. Porterfield. School-based renewal coordinators. Theory Into Practice, 1979, 18(4), 82-88. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, Tea, OD]

The school-based coordinator is a key role in the "renewal model." See Bassin, Gross, and Jordan (1979) for further annotation. See also Gross (1980) and Simmelkjaer (1979).

489. Powers, William T. Quantitative analyses of purpose systems: Some spadework at the foundations of scientific psychology. Psychological Review, 1978, 85(5), 417-435. [N, OrF, Mot]

The revolution in psychology that cybernetics at one time seemed to promise has been delayed by four blunders: (a) dismissal of control theory as a mere machine analogy, (b) failure to describe control phenomena from the behaving system's point of view, (c) applying the general control system model with its signals and functions improperly identified, and (d) focusing on man-machine systems in which the "man" part is conventionally described. . . . Control systems control what they sense, oposing disturbances as they accomplish this end (p. 417).

Natural systems cannot be organized around objective effects of their behavior in an external world; their behavior is not a show put on for the benefit of an observer or to fulfill an observer's purposes. A natural control system can be organized only around the effects that its actions (or independent events) have on its inputs (broadly defined), for its inputs contain all consequences of its actions that can conceivably matter to the control system (p. 418).

490. Research for Better Schools, Inc. The participation of minorities and women in education R&D leadership and management: An annotated bibliography. Philadelphia: author, 1982. [S, Lea, Bib]

Contains five sections: (1) status of minorities and women in educational R&D, (2) issues related to minorities and women in educational leadership and management, (3) variables affecting the participation of minorities and women in educational leadership and management, (4) training models to increase the participation of minorities and women in educational R&D, and (5) projects funded by the National Institute of Education to increase the participation of minorities and women in educational R&D.

491. Rich, Dorothy and Beverly Mattox. Activities for building more effective school-community involvement. Washington, DC: Trinity College, Home and School Institute, 1976. [S, Int, Env, Lin]

Building and maintaining a high degree of rapport and mutual respect between home and school and school and community can best be accomplished with hands-on activities. This book offers 101 ways to do it--without additional time, money or staff. The clear no-nonsense format facilities both the reading and the implementation of the ideas. -- Dorothy Needham in Teacher, vol. 94, p. 84.

492. Riecken, Henry W. and Robert F. Boruch (Eds.) Social experimentation: A method for planning and evaluating social intervention. New York: Academic Press, 1974. [SN, Ev, Int]

The purpose of this book is to consolidate what is known about social experimentation, and to communicate that knowledge to a rather diversified audience. . . . Chapters I and II are aimed at the reader who is looking for a general orientation to the nature of social experimentation--its advantages, limitations, and practical possibilities. Chapters III, IV, and V are more technical, being addressed primarily to readers who are concerned with the major scientific and technical issues in design and measurement, or who expect to have such responsibility thrust upon them. Chapter VI considers the principal operating problems confronting managers of experiments in the field. Chapters VII and VIII are addressed particularly to policy-makers and administrators who may have responsibility for deciding whether to undertake a social experiment. . . . -- from the preface

493. Roberts, Nancy C. and Jerry I. Porras. Progress in organization development research. Group and Organization Studies, 1982, 7(1), 91-116. [N, Ev, OD]

Despite the frequent criticisms of OD in the behavioral science literature, there are four major areas of progress in OD: progress in operationalizing the concept of change; progress in improving measurement processes and procedures; and progress in designing statistical procedures used to analyze OD intervention data. The authors are encouraged by recent developments in OD research which point to a more solid base on which to build OD practice and theory. (authors' abstract)

494. Robinson, Mike. The identity of human social groups. Behavioral Science, 1981, 26(2), 114-129. [N, OrF]

The existence of human social groups is taken as problematic. What is it that constitutes a group "identity"? What is it that stays the same despite changes in membership? The everyday notion that a group is the same if it stays about the same size and continues to do the same sorts of things is taken seriously. "Size" and "activity" are key variables that must be kept within limits if the group is to maintain its identity. This, in turn, implies a stabilizing process amendable to cybernetic analysis.

From observation and experimentation with natural and laboratory groups, a model of this process is developed. It incorporates mechanisms for preserving values of key variables, and enables us to identify sources of instability. The assumptions of the model are tested by computer simulation, the GROUP-1 program, and the results are found to compare well with historical data from natural groups.

Processes of special interest are a triple size-regulation mechanism, and the appearance of the "early leaver phenomenon" in informal groups. This means that new members have the highest probability of leaving, and this is well known in industrial situations. It is found to be an essential correlate of stability. (author's abstract)

495. Rogers, C.R. Freedom to learn. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill, 1969. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

This project in a parochial school district used internal facilitators and weekend encounter groups. The primary target of change was individuals rather than subsystems or the organization as a whole. There was little effect on organizational structure or functioning.

496. Rogers, Everett M. Bibliography on the diffusion of innovations. East Lansing, Michigan: Department of Communications, Michigan State University, 1966. [SN, Int, Lin, Bib]

497. Rosenbaum, James E. Social implications of educational grouping. In D.C. Berliner (Ed.), Review of Research in Education. (Vol. 8) Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association, 1980; pp. 361-401. Copyright 1980, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

Although ability grouping and curriculum grouping are distinct educational practices, this review has attempted to examine them as social systems, and the results of this survey offer strong support for stressing their social properties over their educational properties. Both practices seem surprisingly lax in applying their ostensible selection procedures, so that ability groups are not necessarily homogeneous in terms of students' abilities, and curriculum groups are not necessarily homogeneous in terms of students' future career aspirations. Both practices also seem surprisingly ineffective in delivering the instructional programs that justify the separations that they make. Moreover, the educational literature is strikingly devoid of discussions of appropriate instructional methods that are specifically suited to different ability groups. Educators appear to assume either that instructional benefits are obvious to teachers, or that instructional benefits will come automatically from the practice of ability grouping. Yet the outcome studies clearly indicate that these programs offer no automatic educational benefits to students.

However, these grouping practices have some important points of similarity as social systems, and certain social outcomes do seem to come immediately from intrinsic social properties of these practices. By creating separate groups identified as homogeneous and unequal, ability grouping and curriculum grouping create hierarchical grouping systems which classify students into different categories that receive differential esteem. These classifications tend to be difficult to alter and particularly difficult to improve. Although the group classifications purportedly define only educational programs, they also define simultaneously the academic and social esteem students receive in the school, the way students evaluate their social status and academic competence, and their social interaction in and out of school. This review has suggested ways in which the social aspects of grouping could be reduced while still responding to the problem of student diversity, and it has suggested ways that a program of reform and social experimentation might improve the ways that schools deal with the problem of diversity while furthering our understanding of social grouping processes (p. 395).

498. Rosove, Perry E. An analysis of possible future roles of educations as derived from a contextual map. Santa Monica: System Development Corporation, 1968. [S, Env, Lin]

. . . presents the "complete" results of the experiment in the use of contextual mapping. "The mapping process results in the identification of 98 different possible future roles for educators and also, as a by-product, it identifies 101 potential future issues in education" (p. 3). It is concluded that "the projections of current trends in 18 areas as displayed on the contextual map suggests that [the crisis in education] is merely beginning and will become increasingly complex, fractious, and more costly to resolve in the two decades ahead" (p. 30). To prevent an evolutionary form of drift, four new concepts are proposed: the learning environment as a real-time facility (blurring the distinction between work and education); the continuous, vertical, learning organization serving all educational levels; the learning environment as a multipurpose facility; and (the major conclusion of the study as derived from the above three concepts) the generic role of the "learning facilitator" (rather than the present generic role of "teacher") as a counselor, engineer, instructor in the use of learning resources, and researcher. -- Michael Marien (1971).

499. Rothman, Jack, John L. Erlich, and Joseph G. Teresa. Promoting innovation and change in organizations and communities: A planning manual. New York: Wiley, 1976. [SN, Int, Lin]

The authors' "subject matter has been called community planning, organizational change, community work, diffusion of innovations, service delivery, social action, and the like" (p. 3). These sentences from the introduction reveal the authors' practical orientation: ". . . a practitioner should proceed by setting a sequence of goals that are specific, realistic, . . . short-run and tangible. . . . To employ the manual effectively, then, one must scale down a given purpose to a goal of limited size and time dimensions, so that it can be achieved within approximately five to 12 weeks" (pp. 3-4). The book stems from six years of work in southern Michigan, including Detroit. It is organized around the four guidelines the authors found most central to success after digesting 900 research studies and conducting two field tests. The guidelines are: (1) "promoting an innovative service or program by demonstrating it first with a smaller portion of the target population, then expanding to the larger group," (2) "changing the goals of an organization by introducing new groups into the organization who support the goals or by increasing the influence of those groups within the organization who support the goals," (3) "increasing participation in organizations and groups by offering benefits associated with participation," and (4) "increasing effectiveness in role performance by clarifying the role and obtaining agreement about it among relevant superiors and influentials" (p. 7). The book touches only occasionally on examples from education, but the principles seem generally applicable.

500. Runkel, Philip J. Communication between counselors and teachers. NCME Newsletter, 1961, 4(2), 1-4. [S, OrF]

Offers evidence that counselors do not reach their full usefulness to other members of the faculty until they have remained in the school for about four years.

501. Runkel, Philip J. Personal and organizational pain (a lecturette). In J.W. Pfeiffer and J.E. Jones (Eds.), 1974 Annual handbook for group facilitators. San Diege: University Associates, 1974; pp. 148-149. Reprinted in Schmuck, Runkel, Arends, and Arends (1977); pp. 216-219. [N, OrF]

Pain is unavoidable in organizations, especially during change. We can, however, choose the purposes for which we shall expose ourselves to pain instead of finding ourselves ambushed by pain dumped upon us by others.

502. Runkel, Philip J. Conditions for success and failure of organizational development in schools. CEDR Quarterly, 1975, 8(4), 6-10. ERIC order number ED 088 242. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

This paper discusses differences among schools in their readiness for organizational development interventions. The author begins by outlining criteria for organizational success. He then discusses two variables that have been found important in assessing readiness to profit from organizational development; i.e., readiness for collaboration and ready access to novel ideas or the "variety pool." The author suggests that . . . . "failure" to adopt a prepackaged innovation is often a successful use of resources in meeting a local problem. . . . The author concludes by suggesting that the most "innovative" schools are not necessarily the most effective. (ERIC abstract)

503. Runkel, Philip J. A consultant's view of research methods. In D. Bar-Tal and L. Saxe (Eds.), Social psychology of education: Theory and research. Washington, DC: Hemisphere (distributed by Wiley), 1978; pp. 55-81. [S, Ev, Int]

For too long, now, the relationship between researchers and the researched has focused upon the benefit to the researcher and has treated the needs of the people in the schools--the clients---more or less as a nuisance. . . .

The methods of rigorous research have led clients into a deep distrust of researchers and consultants. Nevertheless, we have been reluctant to admit the weaknesses of the rigorous strategy and the strengths of other strategies. . . .

Schools needs consultants when they contemplate change, especially organizational change. The duties of the consultants are to help clients adapt to the stresses that change inevitably brings and to help them make new plans when the original hypotheses show faults. The relationship between consultants and clients, to be most helpful, must be one of peers; and that new relationship must honor the day-to-day needs of both partners. If we do not learn to work with clients as peers, we shall find our clients becoming fewer and fewer, because they will be refusing to be "subjects." . . .

We also need to face squarely the practical difficulties. The natural setting of schooling is very complex, and the complexity is different in different places. We shall not develop knowledge suitable for very many places from a single experiment. Sociopsychological conditions in schools oscillate, too, from year to year. We should not expect to ascertain the trend of those conditions by taking one or two measurements after the consultants have gone home. When an experiment is promising, we shall get much better information from it if we follow up its effects for 5 years or more (p. 79).

504. Runkel, Philip J. Humans and social animals: A strategy for change must be a social strategy. In D. Hopkins and M. Wideen (Eds.) Alternative perspectives on school improvement, Chapter 9. In preparation. [S, Int, OrF]

Some changes are more difficult than others because first, some require coordinating the actions of more people than others do, and second, some require changes in the assumptions people make about themselves and others, and some do not.

For information on publication, write the author at DEPM, College of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403.

505. Runkel, P.J. Maintaining diversity in schools. Chapter 11 in D. Hopkins and M. Wideen (Eds.), Alternative perspectives on school improvement. In preparation. [S, Int, Env]

Pleads for maintaining diversity in schools to assure adaptability in a changing society. For the biological and cultural analogs, see Ehrlich (1980).

For information on publication, write the author at DEPM, College of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403.

506. Runkel, Philip J. and Warren E. Bell. Some conditions affecting a school's readiness to profit from OD training. Education and Urban Society, 1976, 8(2), 127-144. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Data collected and analyzed during a four-year period indicated that a staff's ability to communicate during emotion was much more important than mere openness of communicative channels in fostering collaboration. Researchers found that readiness to communicate during emotion could be ascertained through a few simple questions asked of the staff.

An analysis of the amounts of training for a school staff showed that small amounts of training tended to make people aware of their problems, but did not allow enough time to develop the skills for coping with them. Scores on measures of communication were actually depressed rather than enhanced by amounts of training less than 22 hours. At a point somewhere between 22 and 27 hours, training improves a staff's ability to build new patterns of interaction.

507. Runkel, Philip J. and Richard A. Schmuck. Review of research findings. In R.A. Schmuck, P.J. Runkel, J.H. Arends, and R.I. Arends. Second handbook of organization development in schools. Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield, 1977; pp. 33-38. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

An overview of the results of the research projects carried on in the program on Strategies of Organizational Change at the Center for Educational Policy and Management from 1967 to 1974. The authors discuss relations among findings and offer implications for school people and consultants.

508. Runkel, Philip J. and Richard A. Schmuck. The place of organizational development in schools. In D. Hopkins and M. Wideen (Eds.), Alternative perspectives on school improvement, Chapter 10. In preparation. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Includes topics of goals in OD, meta-skills, sequences in OD, providing consultants, and what OD does.

For information on publication, write the authors at DEPM, College of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403.

509. Runkel, Philip J., Richard A. Schmuck, Jane H. Arends, Richard P. Francisco. Transforming the school's capacity for problem solving. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1979. [S, Int, OrF, Env, Mot]

The book opens with a discussion of the overwhelming burden of problems with which many school are nowadays trying to cope, especially urban schools. It describes a vicious circle in which multiple difficulties lead to enervation, which in turn leads either to weak and ineffective response to outside help or to an unrealistic expectation of miracles from the outside help, either of which leads to abortive efforts, which in turn multiply the difficulties and increase the enervation. A long chapter lays out the characteristics of humans and their organizations that must be understood by school people and their would-be helpers if the school is to wrench itself free of the vicious circle. Another chapter describes four skills that the authors believe--on the basis of considerable research--will improve the school's capacity for solving problems. The final chapter lays out stages of movement toward heightened capacity for solving problems, lists variables that usually need to be altered at each stage, and suggests techniques for altering them. -- Publisher's blurb

Clear, simple--shall I say beautiful?--prose. You manage to make complex concepts lucid by concrete illustrations and by use of two- and three-syllable words. -- Theodore M. Newcomb, University of Michigan.

Full of brilliant ideas presented in an exciting manner. -- Uriel F. Foa, Temple University.

I found it a pleasure to read. The language style was so felicitous and the pace so balanced that it carried me right along. I think the conceptualization developed in the early chapters is a strongly compelling one, nicely thought out in its intricacies and well matured. Congratulations! -- W.W. Charters, Jr., University of Oregon.

Chapter 3 discusses system levels and motives. For other writings on the motives discussed there, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

510. Runkel, Philip J., Spencer H. Wyant, Warren E. Bell, and Margaret Runkel. Organizational renewal in a school district: Self-help through a cadre of organizational specialists. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1980. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

In the fall of 1967, a school district near Seattle had recently hired several new assistant superintendents to cope with the problems of their ballooning district. The superintendent asked outside consultants if they could clarify roles and make the communication work better among departments, committees, and schools.

The goals agreed upon with the superintendent and his new cabinet included these:

1. To develop clear communication networks up and down and laterally.
2. To develop new ways of solving problems through creative use of new roles in groups.
3. To involve more people at all levels in decision making.
4. To develop procedures for searching for innovative practices both within and outside the school system.

Preliminary negotiations (entry) and preparation of questionnaires took from August 1967 to January 1968. In January, data were collected from the experimental district (Keele) and from two neighboring comparison districts, and again in May 1969, April 1970, and April 1972.

Diagnostic and formative data were collected by interview, observations, documents such as newspapers and district memos, and occasional brief questionnaires.

Consultants conducted three training events for administrative groups. The first was a week-long workshop in April 1968 attended by the nine members of the superintendent's cabinet, 21 building administrators, and at least one teacher from every building in the district. The second was a three-day workshop in September 1968 for some 70 members of the departments of Student Personnel Services and Curriculum. The third was a two-day workshop in December 1968 for the head of the business office and six of his department heads. Also in the fall of 1968, training began in two elementary schools, a junior high school, and two high schools.

One of the consultants' goals was to leave the Keele district with a structure that would sustain a capacity for organizational problem solving. To do that, they began in the spring of 1969 to recruit volunteers for the Cadre of Organizational Specialists. They sought people who, after training, would spend perhaps ten percent of their time acting as OD consultants within the district. From the volunteers, they selected 23 for training.

The initial and major training event for the Cadre of Organizational Specialists was a two-week workshop in June 1969. The first week was devoted to a variety of exercises designed to develop the Cadre into a cohesive group. Individual specialists were given experience as co-trainers in exercises in communication skills, decision making, observation of group processes, and the like during the first part of the first week. Temporary teams of specialists designed exercises to focus on particular consultative skills and then conducted them for their colleagues. During the second week, intervention teams formed and members of each team shared resources and expectations, while the Cadre as a whole generated a list of potential clients for the first training events. Each team then selected an actual client, made entry, gathered diagnostic data, and returned to the Cadre's training site to review its data and make plans for their own first training interventions.

Consultants gave the Cadre ten rules:

1. Draw members from all ranks.
2. Assign members part time to the Cadre.
3. Provide services to clients in the district by sub-teams drawn from the Cadre--not by individuals.
4. Let the Cadre respond to requests; do not impose Cadre services.

5. When starting a new Cadre, give at least two weeks--three are better--of initial training. Solid weeks are probably more efficient, but the time can also be spread over a few months.

6. Do not assign Cadre members to consult with the units (such as school or central-office department) in which they are regularly employed.

7. Appoint a coordinator who will work on Cadre affairs at least half time.

8. Let the Cadre have at least ten members.

9. Give the Cadre its own budget.

10. Provide time for the Cadre's own self-renewal: recruiting and training new members, acquiring new skills, renewing its own cohesiveness, and planning for the future.

In the fall of 1969, Cadre members found two schools in the district as clients. Members of the outside consulting team hovered at the Cadre sub-teams' elbows as they tried their wings. During the spring of 1970, the consultants gradually withdrew; they ceased active consultation at the end of the 1969-70 school year. In the meantime, seven elementary schools had requested the Cadre's services, and the Cadre gave OD training to all of them in August of 1970. Later, the Cadre provided OD consultation to other elementary and secondary schools in the district and to administrative groups. They aided in one way or another two schools in other districts, teachers' and principals' groups, PTAs, League of Women Voters, social agencies, and so on. They also taught several inservice courses in communication skills.

In 1972, data from the four waves of questionnaires were analyzed. There had been little effective training in secondary schools, and their numbers were too few anyway for reliable comparisons with untrained secondary schools. But eight elementary schools, seven in Keele and one in an adjoining district, had received varying amounts of OD training from the outsiders, from the Cadre, or from both. There were data to compare outcomes in those schools with untrained elementary schools in Keele and in two neighboring districts. Some of the results from the questionnaires are as follows.

Trained elementary schools showed higher averages than untrained schools in 1969, 1970, and 1972 on the skills of (1) continuing to communicate under emotion, (2) openness-to-information--the ability of a school staff to elicit, offer, and circulate information in the school--and (3) responsiveness to requests from other teachers. Furthermore, there was some evidence that the trained schools maintained those three skills longer than the untrained schools.

Trained schools showed higher averages than untrained schools in 1970 and 1972 on the skills of (1) awareness of functioning communication channels, (2) communicating with interdependent others when choosing teaching methods, (3) decision making by teachers concerning curriculum and student conduct, and (4) reaching out to colleagues in decision making.

A far greater proportion of the trained elementary schools succeeded (to a specific criterion) in bringing about team teaching than untrained schools. Six out of seven of the schools with OD training attained it, but only three out of 16 schools without training did so. Moreover, whether or not schools succeeded in bringing about team teaching or some similar collaborative innovation, the trained schools dealt with that sort of innovation with greater dispatch than untrained schools--either getting the innovation into working shape or jettisoning it more rapidly.

Greater amounts of training showed greater favorable effects. Among elementary schools with collaborative structure (chiefly team teaching), the schools with greater amounts of training maintained about the same level from 1970 to 1972 in the skill of communicating during emotion (while most untrained schools declined in skill), and increased their scores on skill in the processes of meetings and on skill in conducting effective meetings. Too little training, however, seemed to depress the scores of schools on those three skills. The change from loss to profit seemed to occur for communicating during emotion at about 16 hours of training and at about 24 hours for processes in meetings and effectiveness in meetings.

Further, schools with greater amounts of training generally showed the highest scores on the skills of awareness of functioning communication channels, communicating with interdepenent others, decision making by teachers, and reaching out to colleagues in decision making. Those with the least training, in contrast, often showed very low scores on those four skills.

The signal success of the project, however, was the Cadre of Organizational Specialists. It was a unique organizational innovation, and a first try. Nevertheless, the Keele Cadre weathered, year after year, difficulties that have scuttled many other organizational innovations. It survived the departure of the outside consultants. It survived the replacement of its coordinators and the annual turnover of other personnel in its ranks. It survived, for several years, the departure of the first superintendent and his replacement by a person unsympathetic to the Cadre. It survived, for several years, with little or no financial support.

The authors point out that the Keele Cadre did better than they did. Once a team from the Keele Cadre had made entry into a school, its average stay was longer than theirs and its effects often better. There were three schools in Keele that were happy to see the outside consultants depart. But every one of those three at some later time invited the Cadre to give them consultation or training. Finally, the larger amounts of training that brought the stronger results in the study came much more from the Cadre than from the outside consultants.

See also the review by D.C. Ohrlich in Review of Education, 1982, 8(1), 15-21.

511. Runkel, Philip J., Marilyn Lawrence, Shirley Oldfield, Mimi Rider, and Candee Clark. Stages of group development: An empirical test of Tuckman's hypothesis. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1971, 7(2), 180-193. [S, OrF]

The stages of group development have often been discussed and frequently hypothesized--but seldom observed in the classroom. At the University of Oregon, a study was made of small workgroups, each of which was assigned to complete an empirical investigation. The task-oriented groups, composed mostly of strangers, had to form themselves from larger sections into workgroups of four or more individuals, choose a task, pursue the research, and present the work in written form at the completion of the project. Those workgroups were observed by students who had been through the social psychology course the previous year. The framework from the observations was Bruce Tuckman's (1965) model of group development. He stated that there are two aspects to group development: task activity and group structure; within each, he listed four developmental phases. The goal of the research was to test the fit of Tuckman's model of group development to the actual development of the workgroups observed in the classroom setting. The fit was very good. (authors' abstract)

512. Rutherford, William L. The madness of educational change. Austin, TX: Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Publ. No. 3016, 1975. (mimeo) [S, Int, OrF, Env]

This paper reflects on the problems of change in schools that is often neither orderly nor productive, resulting in a reduction of teacher effectiveness and potential student achievement. The problems of external funding, inattention to factors that influence innovation adoption, and the complexity and abundance of innovations in schools are discussed. -- from the Catalog of Publications of the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, Austin, Texas.

513. Rutherford, William L. The actual outcomes of team teaching compared with its predicted outcomes. Austin, TX: R & D Center for Teacher Education, 1977. (mimeo) [S, OrF, Tea]

Compares early hopes for team teaching with results of a survey in Massachusetts, Nebraska, Virginia, and Texas. Outcomes varied considerably.

514. Rutter, Michael, Barbara Maughan, Peter Mortimore, and Janet Ouston. Fifteen thousand hours: Secondary schools and their effects on

children. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1979. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Env]

The survey was done in 1970 and repeated in 1974 when the students were in twelve secondary schools in London. The researchers accumulated evidence about the students when they entered, and left the schools, and about the environments of the schools themselves.

They have analysed four kinds of outcome: examination success, deliquency rates, attendance levels, and student behavior. With data on the entering cohort they statistically control for differences among the schools' students. Then variables which describe the quality and character of the schools are related to the residual variance in the outcomes. Their central conclusion is that school "processes" influence exam success as well as the other outcomes. The process variables include the academic emphasis of the school (e.g., amount of homework given), the nature of rewards and punishments (including the "ten naughty children scale"), the quality of the environment provided for the children (e.g., number of class trips), and the degree to which students participate in the school (e.g., number of students who have held office). These and other variables are shown to have a statistically significant relationship to the outcomes. Schools do make a difference.

The study is state-of-the-art survey research. The authors measured more than student performance on academic tests. They controlled for initial differences in students. And they collected a wide range of data on schools. -- from The Generator, 1980, 11(1), 23.

Rutter's book is, in my judgement, a landmark for the last decade and certainly the next. It addresses "handles" which educators can use, affords research evidence which can underpin constructive steps at school levels, and illustrates what creativity, intelligence, perserverance, and responsible caution can produce in research service to the educational needs and aspirations of children and young adults. -- H.D. Gideonse in Educational Researcher, 1981, 10(1), 28.

At last, a study of schools that sheds pure light and a breath of fresh air upon the tangled relationships of school environments and student growth. . . .

Fifteen Thousand Hours leads the way back to looking at schools, this time with the focus upon school processes and ecological influences.

The authors state their "principal concern throughout the research has been to investigate the reasons why there are differences between schools in terms of various measures of their pupils' behavior and attainments; and to determine how schools influence children's progress." The list of school variables and student outcomes Rutter and his colleagues have selected for study is impressively sensible. They considered not only student test scores as outcomes but also variations in attendance, student behavior, and delinquency. The relevant school features included amount of teaching, degree of academic emphasis, homework, extent and nature of ability grouping, teacher expectation, teaching style, classroom management, patterns of discipline, overall school climate or atmosphere, and the size of the school. . . .

In their substantive analysis the authors found marked differences between schools in students' outcomes even when taking into account differences in intake variables. Comparisons of schools were made on delinquency figures, teacher ratings of student behavior, attendance, and test scores. These differences were relatively stable over a period of 4 to 5 years. Schools that tended to do better on one student outcome tended to do better on other student outcomes -- J.A. Stallings in Contemporary Psychology, 1980, 25(6), 450.

515. Salancik, Gerald R. and Jeffrey Pfeffer. An examination of need-satisfaction models of job attitudes. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1977, 22, 427-456. [N, Ev, OrF, Mot]

A need-satisfaction theoretical model has been ubiquitous in studies and writings on job attitudes and, by extension, motivation, job design, and other organizational performance improvement issues. An examination of such need models indicates that they are frequently formulated so as to be almost impossible to refute, and the research testing them has been beset with consistency and priming artifacts. Furthermore, available empirical data fail to support many of the crucial elements of the need-satisfaction theories. An examination of the components of need-satisfaction models--needs, job characteristics, and job attitudes--indicates that all three have been incompletely considered. Need models may have persisted in part because of perceptual biases, their consistency with other theories of rational choice behavior, and because of what they seem to imply about human behavior. The models appear to deny, however, that people have the capacity to provide their own satisfactions by cognitively reconstructing situations. (authors' abstract)

516. Salancik, Gerald R. and Jeffrey Pfeffer. A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1978, 23(2), 224-253. [N, Ev, OrF, Mot]

This article outlines a social information processing approach to explain job attitudes. In comparison with need-satisfaction and expectancy models of job attitudes and motivation, the social information processing perspective emphasizes the effects of context and the consequences of past choices, rather than individual predispositions and rational decision-making processes. When an individual develops statements about attitudes or needs, he or she uses social information--information about past behavior and about what others think. The process of attributing attitudes or needs from behavior is itself affected by commitment processes, by the saliency and relevance of information, and by the need to develop socially acceptable and legitimate rationalizations for actions. Both attitudes and need statements, as well as characterizations of jobs, are affected by informational social influence. The implications of the social information processing perspective for organization development efforts and programs of job redesign are discussed. (authors' abstract)

517. Sarason, Seymour B. The nature of problem solving in social action. *American Psychologist*, 1978, 33(4), 370-380. [SN, Int, Env]

Science has never had a self-conscious social-historical stance. It uses narrow history in a narrow way, and to the extent that science solves problems, it renders that history obsolete. The nature of scientific problem-solving has been assumed to be appropriate to all problems, including those in the social realm. There are no intractable problems: problems you have to "solve" again, and again, and again. If problems in the social realm seem intractable, it is assumed it is because they have not been formulated and attacked scientifically. Like the atomic scientists, the social scientists who entered the world of social action after World War II, armed with their theories and scientifically tested knowledge, found a world that would not bend to their paradigms. They had entered a world governed by values, not facts, where persuasion and power were in the service of different definitions of age-old questions, where the relationship between action and values was far more crucial to living than was the requirement that action lead to a solution. Many social scientists reacted either with petulance or bewilderment. They had not been content to study and explain the social world; they had wanted to change it. They fared poorly. A malaise set in, a crisis of confidence. How does one justify trying to cope with what may be intractable problems? The very nature of the question belies its origins in the assumption of science that one has to believe that all problems are solvable. (author's abstract)

See also Feyerabend (1978) and Scriven (1980).

518. Sarason, Seymour B. *The culture of the school and the problem of change.* (2nd ed.) Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1982. [S, Int, OrF, Lea, Mot]

. . . one of the major "industries" . . . in the post-World War II period could be given the awkward title, "changing and improving schools." And most of the people engaged in such efforts were not indigenous to the schools. Many of the acknowledged leaders came from the university. To what extent, and with what clarity, did these people confront the obstacles of the "outsider-insider" dichotomy? Unfortunately, these spearheaders of the change effort seemed massively insensitive to the culture of schools. Their efforts resulted largely in failure and that was in part due, and sometimes it was totally due, to ignorance about the distinctive, tradition-based axioms, values, and outlook of school personnel. As Chapter 3 emphasizes, faced with failure, these well-intentioned proponents for change could only understand school personnel in terms of personality traits, e.g., rigid, paranoid, unmotivated. . . .

Chapter 4 describes two efforts at educational change. I call them "modal" because I believe that from the standpoint of their initial conception, tactics, process, and outcome they contain most of the major features of the change process. These two efforts had disheartening results. It is not because of any intention on my part to accentuate the negative and to deemphasize the positive that I use these instances. The main intent of Chapter 4 is to give some feel for what that process means in practice (p. 3).

If I devote special attention in Chapter 5 to the federal Experimental Schools Program, it is for several reasons: it was announced with much fanfare, for all practical purposes money was not a problem, selected school systems where to be given wide latitude in "coordinating" programs ("putting it all together"), and there were to be different levels of evaluation. Why was it such a dismal failure? That is the question that P. Cowden and D. Cohen's (unpublished) recent evaluation of the program helps to clarify.

The final chapter contains an attempt to pinpoint what I have come to believe are the crucial features of a change effort that stands a chance of achieving some of its objectives. Given all that has preceded that chapter it will come as no surprise that the concept of constituency, the fact of limited (and shrinking) resources, and the questions "who owns the school?" and "what are schools for?" loom large in that chapter (p. 7).

519. Sarason, Seymour B. and Elizabeth Lorentz. *The challenge of the resources exchange network*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1979. [SN, Int, Env, Lin]

In nine short chapters, Sarason and Lorentz want to move us, in their words, "from concept to action." The intention is to bring together two ideas: limited human resources and exchange networks. We are given essays on professionalism, creative leadership, and formal and informal organizations, as well as case studies of strategies for social programs and concrete descriptions of networks and network building. The message is that we need to think differently. The key seems to be in understanding an unstated paradox: Human service settings are always going to have both fewer and more resources than one thinks they have. As with any paradox, stories are useful in conveying understanding, and this narrative is full of stories. . . .

After reading this book, one can't help but see one's colleagues, clients, friends, neighbors, and even rivals more as assets and resources and less as deficits and liabilities. . . .

The critique of current advocacy movements is especially good, and so too is the analysis of the struggle between individuality and community, a theme of much of Sarason's work, which tends to make it an expression of universal experience. -- J. Rappaport in Contemporary Psychology, 1980, 25(2), 126-127.

520. Sarason, Seymour B, Charles F. Carroll, Kenneth Maton, Saul Cohen, and Elizabeth Lorentz. Human services and resource networks: Rationale, possibilities, and public policy. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1977. [SN, Int, Env, Lin]

This book is a description of a three-year project to develop and sustain a network of very diverse people in their efforts "to use" each other in ways that furthered them in their goals of work, at the same time that a sense of bondedness was enhanced (p. 2).

The stance of the schools is typical of all agencies: Additional resources are needed, but it requires money to obtain them or to be the basis for an exchange of resources. As a consequence, agencies spend a good deal of time trying to get more money, in effect competing with each other for these additional financial resources. And that stance makes it inordinately difficult, and in practice almost impossible, to do three related things: to confront [the fact] that resources are and will be limited; to examine critically the accepted relationship between problems and solutions; and to figure out possible ways in which agencies can learn to exchange resources in mutually beneficial ways and without financies being a prerequisite for discussion or the basis for exchange (p. 22).

The fact is, scores of millions of dollars were spent by the federal government for purposes similar to those of the Essex network, with predictably poor results in any community. . . . Mrs. Dewar contributed $25,000, not a million, over a three-year period. By usual standards of grant-giving agencies, that is a piddling amount of money, but it was sufficient to bring and sustain in working relationship to each other several score of people from at least a score of colleges, universities, and community agencies (pp. 99-100).

521. Saturen, Steven L. On the way to adaptability: Some conditions for organizational self-renewal in elementary schools. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1972. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The purpose of this study was to investigate empirically a theory about conditions antecedent to organizational adaptability. During the spring of 1968, 1969, or 1970 pretest measures were taken in thirty elementary schools of (1) whether teachers' expectations supported variety of expression (in particular, open communication of job-related emotions and disagreements), and (2) whether teachers' expectations supported collaboration. During the year following collection of the pretest measures, six of the thirty schools received training in organizational development designed . . . to produce adapability. Five types of post-measures were collected one or two years after the pretest and were assessed to indicate each school's ability to adapt.

The [results] were interpreted to indicate that training in organizational development promotes adaptability when previous expectations support variety of expression and collaboration, but may inhibit adaptability when the school is characterized by expectations that do not support collaboration; and that [even] expectations supporting collaboration can inhibit adaptability unless teachers use skills for surfacing and managing conflicts. (authors' abstract)

522. Saturen, Steven L. OD in Adams County School District No. 50. *Education and Urban Society*, 1976, 8(2), 196-212. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Describes OD activities since 1969: courses to introduce OD values, theory, and technology; workshops for curriculum development, surveys of local needs, consultation with teachers to design local workshops, in-service training for developing classroom processes, and workshops for team building. The work has benefitted from (1) inside-outside collaboration, (2) entering the system at several levels, (3) emphasizing and realizing integration, (4) providing tangible rewards, and (5) planning systematically. Pitfalls are (1) over-sensitivity to threat, (2) administrative changes, (3) spreading too thinly, (4) revealing too much dissonance, and (5) aligning with special interests.

523. Schaefer, E. S. A configurational analysis of children's reports of parent behavior. *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 1965, 29, 552-557. [N, Mot]

Proposes two dimensions of social motives: control-autonomy and love-hate.

See also G.J. Ranson, E.S. Schaefer, and B. Levy. Cross-national validity of a spherical conceptual model for parent behavior. *Child Development*, 1968, 39, 1227-1235. Also E.S. Schaefer. From circular to spherical conceptual models for parent behavior and child behavior. In J.P. Hill (Ed.), *Minnesota symposia on child psychology*. (Vol. 4) Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1971.

For other writings on social motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

524. Scheinfeld, Daniel. A design for renewing urban elementary schools. *Theory Into Practice*, 1979, 18(2), 114-125. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The three-faceted design for instructional improvement evolved during a three-year action-research project in which a team of seven change agents worked with two public elementary schools in Chicago. From the inception of the program the team implemented the three-faceted design summarized above, although at the beginning, the OD component was only rudimentary (p. 115).

We are suggesting . . . that the three separately developed disciplines of the classroom advisory, school-community organization, and organiza-

> tion development now be combined into a more comprehensive design which will have a greater chance of succeeding. . . .
>
> Even after accepting the desirability of a three-faceted design for change, there will no doubt be many ways in which those ideas can be applied. In our own case, we have evolved what could be called the planning facilitator model. In this strategy an organization development person provides the pivotal role for a change-agent team which also involves teacher-advisors and a school-community organizer. The planning facilitator assists the school in a long-term process of self-reflection and self-development, much in the style of the renewal coordinator. He or she flexibly includes the school-community organizer to help bring the community as fully as possible into that process. The planning facilitator also provides sensitive matches between the classroom development goals of the school and the skills of the teacher-advisors. Together, this group of people constitutes a coordinated team that maintains a high level of internal communication (p. 124).

525. Schmuck, Patricia A., Werrett W. Charters, Jr., and Richard O. Carlson (Eds.) Educational policy and management: Sex differentials. New York: Academic Press, 1981. [S, Ef, OrF, Lea]

Contents:

P.A. Schmuck and W.W. Charters, Jr.: The sex dimension--an overview.

C. Shakeshaft: Women in educational administration: A descriptive analysis of dissertation research and paradigm for future research.

W.W. Charters, Jr.: Sex equity in educational policies and practices.

P. Jacklin: The concept of sex equity in jurisprudence.

P.A. Schmuck and S.H. Wyant: Clues to sex bias in the selection of school administrators: A report from the Oregon Network.

B. Hutchison: The problem of sex bias in curriculum materials.

R.O. Carlson and P.A. Schmuck: The sex dimension of careers in educational management: Overview and synthesis.

D.B. Tyack and M.H. Strober: Jobs and gender: A history of the structuring of educational employment by sex.

T.D. Jovick: Ambitions and the opportunity for professionals in the elementary school.

S.K. Edson: "If they can, I can": Women aspirants to administrative positions in public schools.

S.C. Paddock: Male and female career paths in school administration.

K.N. Gaertner: Administrative careers in public school organizations.

P.A. Schmuck: The sex dimension of school organization: Overview and synthesis.

J. Stockard and M. Johnson: The sources and dynamics of sexual inequality in the profession of education.

M. Wheatley: The impact of organizational structures on issues of sex equity.

N.J. Pitner: Hormones and harems: Are the activities of superintending different for a woman?

M. Gilbertson: The influence of gender on the verbal interactions among principals and staff members: An exploratory study.

W.W. Charters, Jr. and T.D. Jovick: The gender of principals and principal-teacher relations in elementary schools.

See also P.A. Schmuck. _Sex differentiation in public school administration_. Arlington, VA: National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1976.

526. Schmuck, Patricia, Susan Paddock, and John Packard. _Management implications of team teaching_. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1977. Winner of first-place award in the 1977 School and College Publications Contest. ERIC order number ED 137 906. For the much more extensive final report of 1978, the ERIC order number is ED 161 153. The final report is also available in photocopy from the Center. [S, Int, OrF]

This is a study of 16 elementary schools that planned to install unit structure (that is, permanent and official teacher work groups) in comparison to 13 that planned to continue their conventional organization. "There was more team teaching, more teacher group participation in decision making and more teacher-teacher communication after schools had installed the unit organization. The findings failed to show that installation of units altered teacher attitudes; teachers in unit schools did not report greater job satisfaction or influence than teachers in conventional schools. . . . there are differences among schools that install units. Key factors such as clarity, staff turnover, amount of experimentation, teaming subject areas, principal leadership, and external support serve to differentiate among unit schools, resulting in different levels of team teaching" (p. 14 of the summary leaflet).

527. Schmuck, Richard A. Helping teachers improve classroom group processes. _Journal of Applied Behavioral Science_, 1968, 4(4), 401-435. Adapted as

"Improving classroom group processes" in R.A. Schmuck and M.B. Miles (Eds.), Organization development in schools. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1971; pp. 29-50. [S, Cl, Int]

Describes 3 "interventional" projects to study informal aspects of classroom activity: (1) 20 elementary school teachers participated in 7 training activities including role-playing, sensitivity, and human relations training. Twenty more took part in a non-interaction seminar and 10 received no special treatment. (2) Forty upper-elementary-school teachers worked with psychological consultants in both individual and group problem-oriented sessions 4 hours per week for 15 weeks. (3) A 6-day organizational development laboratory involving one school's 54-member staff was conducted. Measures were taken with all groups to explore the influence of each project on teacher behavior in the classroom. Greatest behavioral changes accompanied the 7-phase training laboratory, but all activities were judged helpful to some extent. Two integrated programs for improving classroom group processes are suggested. -- D. Jewell in Psychological Abstracts, 43(2).

528. Schmuck, Richard A. Developing collaborative decision making: The importance of trusting, strong, and skillful leaders. Educational Technology, 1972, 12(10), 43-47. [S, OrF, Lea, OD]

. . . there are some districts in which much of the power thought to be traditionally held by the central office administrators is shared with principals, teachers, and students. I believe that such democratic structures are ideal outcomes for a program of organizational development in schools. . . . Although it does not develop easily, school district groups, building faculties, and classroom groups can be trained to make decisions efficiently without the necessity for external pressure or surveillance. . . (p. 43).

529. Schmuck, Richard A. Self-confrontation of teachers. Oregon School Study Council Bulletin, 1973, 17(3). [S, Cl, Int]

This paper discusses some psychological reactions that can be expected by teachers when they are confronted with information about their own classroom behavior. It also suggests some actions that a facilitator might take to help a teacher to focus energies on self-improvement. -- K.A. Erickson's preface.

For related studies, see Burns (1977), Daw and Gage (1967), Gage, Runkel, and Chatterjee (1963), Hovenier (1966), Margaret Nelson (1972), and Tuckman, McCall, and Hyman (1969).

530. Schmuck, Richard A. Bringing parents and students into school management: A new program of research and development on organization development. Education and Urban Society, 1974, 6(2), 205-221. Reprinted in C.B. Derr (Ed.), Organizational Development in Urban School Systems, Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1974; and in J. Aldous (Ed.), Inventory of Marriage and Family Literature, University of Minnesota, 1975. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Env, OD]

A proposed plan for building decision-making interfaces among parents, students, and educators.

531. Schmuck, Richard A. Development of management teamwork: National overview. Paper presented at the Educational Managers' Annual Academy, Wemme, Oregon, 1974. ERIC Order No. ED 094 456. [S, OrF, Tea]

Schmuck sees a paradox in modern institutional life. As life grows more complex, people become increasingly interdependent on each other. To be successful, an institution requires the collaboration of many individuals. But at the same time, individual diversity often works against collaborative interdependence. Team management employs not only individual talent but also members' strengths to reach wise decisions. Key to the notion of the management team is that members hold "some degree of reciprocal influence over one another."

Schmuck details the advantages of using teams. He states that the size of the team itself is crucial. It should be large enough to encompass representatives from all subsystems and still small enough for face-to-face discussions and collaboration. The goal of team deliberations need not be 100 percent agreement, but rather that all understand the issue, can paraphrase it, have a chance to air their opinions, and be willing not to sabotage the majority's decision.

532. Schmuck, Richard A. How can schools accommplish humanistic change? Educational Leadership, 1975, 32(6), 380-383. [S, Int, OrF]

Our culture will not be humanized by cooperative energy alone; its very institutions must be restructured for humanization to persist. And humanistic change in schools is a case in point. Although cooperation and energy are crucial for humanizing our schools, systematic strategies for organizational change which are themselves humanistic are essential (p. 380).

Suggestions for such strategies are included.

533. Schmuck, Richard A. Process consultation and organization development. Professional Psychology, 1976, 7(4), 626-631. Reprinted in M.J. Curtis and J.E. Zins (Eds.), Theory and practice of school consultation. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1981. [S, Cl, Int, OD]

Presents an introductory overview, comparing OD with other types of school consultation.

534. Schmuck, Richard A. Classroom dynamics. In B.B. Wolman (Ed.), International encyclopedia of psychiatry, psychoanalysis, psychology, and neurology. (Vol. 3) New York: Aesculapius and Van Nostrand Reinhard, 1977; pp. 164-167. (Book chosen for the Dartmouth Medal) [S, Cl, Ef, Int, Mot]

A succint review of research on group processes in the classroom, focusing on such topics as leadership, friendship, communication, and norms.

See also Schmuck and Schmuck (1979) and Schmuck and Runkel (1982).

535. Schmuck, Richard A. Peer consultation for school improvement. In C.L. Cooper and C.P. Alderfer (Eds.), Advances in experiential social processes. Sussex, England: Wiley and Sons Ltd., 1977; pp. 137-159. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

Three types of consultation are particularly popular among contemporary educators: (1) Expert technical assistance delivered by outsiders to the school district; (2) Curriculum expertise offered by specialists within the school district; and (3) Process consultation offered within the district but mostly ad hoc. . . .

Organizational development (OD), a sort of process consultation, is a planned and sustained effort to apply behavioral science for system improvement, using reflexive, self-analytic methods. . . . It is distinguished from other kinds of process consultation in its emphasis on the system as the target of change. . . .

We have established peer cadres of OD specialists within two school districts of the Pacific Northwest. . . . The cadre in the state of Washington commenced operations in 1969 and was disbanded in 1975. The second cadre has been operating and flourishing in Eugene, Oregon since 1971. Other peer cadres of OD specialists have been tried in a tri-county area of central California, in school districts near Denver, and in the province of Manitoba, Canada.

Members entering these cadres are regular district personnel such as teachers, principals, counselors, curriculum specialists, and assistant superintendents; each performing only part time in the role of OD specialist while carrying out full time teaching, administrative, or coordinating responsibilities. The specialists use their understandings and skills as facilitators to help their peers clarify communication, assess progress toward educational goals, cope with interdependence and conflict in a productive way, systematically solve problems, reach out to use relevant resources, and make decisions collaboratively (pp. 137-138, 141-142). (Reprinted by permission of John Wiley and Sons, Ltd.)

Explains what a cadre does, its values, typical client groups, and how to recruit a cadre, train it, and keep it going.

536. Schmuck, Richard A. Peer groups as settings for learning. Theory into Practice, 1977, 16(4), 272-279. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

Self-renewing classes have the capability of self-consciously assessing how well they are doing in relation to their group cohesiveness, interpersonal collaboration, and support for individual differences, and [of taking] constructive action to improve on any of these when improvements are needed. Self-renewing peer groups can continue to set up new purposes and procedures out of their own internal resources and wherewithal, and they have the competence to adopt new procedures when the old ones are no longer functional. They may be termed fully self-renewing when all members accept the responsibility for their own group existence and are continually striving to improve it (p. 278).

537. Schmuck, Richard A. Applications of social psychology to classroom life. In D. Bar-Tal and L. Saxe (Eds.), Social psychology of education: Theory and research. Washington, DC: Hemisphere (distributed by Wiley), 1978; pp. 231-255. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Mot]

Classroom learning occurs both in the exchanges between teachers and students and in the exchanges among students. Schmuck focuses on the learning group as an entity with its own identity and influence. The relationship with teachers and the relationships with student peers provide the student with opportunities for feeling competent, for feeling powerful, and for affiliating with others. Student behavior then is influenced by the goals and the norms of the learning group. Schmuck says that "a larger number of learning objectives and interpersonal motives can be reached in schools where learning groups are divided into guidance, instructional, and application groups" (p. 253).

538. Schmuck, Richard A. Facilitating school renewal: The role of process consultation. Theory into Practice, 1979, 18(2), 59-64. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Three strategies for renewal in urban schools--technical assistance, content training for staff, and process consultation--are discussed.

539. Schmuck, Richard A. The school organization. In J. McMillan (Ed.), Social psychology of school learning. New York: Academic Press, 1980, 169-213. [S, Ef, OrF, Mot]

The chapters in this volume address variables and processes considered by social psychologists to be most proximal to student learning. They include classroom group dynamics, teacher-student relationships, and student expectations and attitudes. In contrast, this chapter analyzes student learning from the more macro-perspective of the school organization. My argument has been that, through a complex chain of social-psychological events, the organization of the school influences the way students perceive and feel about themselves as students, and that these reactions can influence the energy available to students for pursuing academic learning.

Three classes of interrelated organizational variables serve either as facilitators or restraints to student learning. First are the contextual factors of organizational size and the culture of the neighborhoods from which the staff members and students come. Second are the formal structural variables of complexity and influence within the school. And third are the emotional aspects of the informal climate of the school including trust, openness, and morale (pp. 209-210).

540. Schmuck, Richard A. Students as organizational co-participants. In S. Sharan, A.P. Hare, C. Webb, and R. Lazarowitz (Eds.), Cooperation in education. Provo, UT: Brigham Young University Press, 1981; pp. 146-159. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, OD]

OD consultants have been most myopic . . . in relation to students as organizational coparticipants. The theory and practice of OD only rarely has given weight to students as clients. OD consultants and adult clients have typically regarded students as products of the educational system to be acted upon and shaped, juveniles (not yet responsible citizens) who need to be controlled or protected, or consumers who occasionally want to express their reactions and preferences. Seldom have consultants, educators, or parents viewed students as full-fledged organizational members who do, can, or should participate in school planning, problem solving, and decision making. I know of no school where students are viewed as having legitimate influence over the school's curriculum, grading policies, teacher evaluation procedures, budget, and so forth (pp. 149-150).

Now let me turn to a description of three tested strategies, each aiming to help students increase their understanding of how the school organization works and become skillful as organizational participants. These strategies do not comprise a complete list of all those that have been tried in schools, but rather offer a starting point for planning to achieve school improvement. They represent attempts to change from the traditional hierarchical school, in which adults serve as the planners and students the operators, toward a more democratic and polyarchic organizational structure (p. 151).

541. Schmuck, Richard A. Organization development in the schools. In C.R. Reynolds and T.B. Gutkin (Eds.), Handbook for the practice of school psychology. New York: Wiley, 1982, 829-857. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Organization development is a planned and sustained effort at school self-study and improvement. The focus is on the school as a social system and human culture. The process involves the school participants themselves in the active assessment, diagnosis, and transformation of their own organization. This chapter aims to help school psychologists understand why the concepts and techniques of organization development are important for their repertoires. It describes the basic concepts of organization development, delineates the theory that undergirds it, summarizes the generic stages of consultation in organization development, specifies much of its current technology, presents a number of illustrative projects, describes how organization development might be institutionalized in school districts, summarizes the state of research on organization development, and finishes with a discussion of current trends. It is the perspective of a school psychologist who becomes involved in organization development to work toward establishing emotionally supportive climates in schools and school districts (pp. 856-857). (Reprinted by permission of John Wiley and Sons, Ltd.)

542. Schmuck, Richard A. Seeing how teachers fit in. In D.E. Orlosky (Ed.), Introduction to education. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill, 1982; pp. 89-121. [S, Cl, OrF]

This chapter has offered you a realistic picture of the social setting you'll experience when you become a teacher. It may, in places, have seemed an overly pessimistic picture, describing psychological stresses, role conflicts, societal malaise. But balanced with the more common ideal image of the teaching profession, this information can help you make a more considered decision about a teaching career and give you some guidance in your preparation. The sociological analyses in this chapter, and those in the next chapter, provide you with some lenses through which to view school interactions in the classroom and out. The concepts can become tools for your own future analyses of specific school settings. The personal suggestions at the end may help save you the premature burnout or disillusionment that happens all too frequently in teaching today (p. 121).

543. Schmuck, Richard A. Defining characteristics of the autonomous school. In D. Hopkins and M. Widen (Eds.), Alternative perspectives on school improvement. In preparation. [S, OrF]

The autonomous school has a strong capacity to solve its own problems and to carry out self-initiated school improvement efforts. It has structures for diagnosing student progress, bringing in resources for educational improvement from the outside, and mobilizing staff groups for problem solving. It also has a collaborative management structure that helps keep the school focused on achieving its educational goals. (author's abstract)

For information about publication, write to the author at DEPM, College of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403.

544. Schmuck, Richard A. Developing an organizational team within a school district. In J. Alpert (Ed.), Psychological consultation to schools: Case studies. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1982; pp. 247-274. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

. . . cadres are attractive, in part, because they embody the strengths of both internal and external consultation. On the one hand, cadre members are internal consultants insofar as they are employees of the same district as their clients; they work for the same school board and superintendent, are on the same pay schedule and receive the same benefits, and live existentially within the same sociological context. As fellow employees, their expressed concern for school improvement is easier to trust than similar concerns expressed by socially removed outsiders. As peer-colleagues they honestly appreciate the day-to-day micro-politics of the district. As volunteers who are not paid extra for their services, their advice to go slowly during diagnosis or to encourage long-term designs with follow up are more credible than would be similar advice from paid outsiders. Cadre members inside the district can establish legitimacy through norms that support teacher autonomy from management, educator equality regardless of rank, and the value of collegial responsibility and collaboration for school improvement.

On the other hand, cadre members are external consultants since they never consult in their own family subsystem; i.e., their own department, team, committee, or school. As non-members of the client group, they can maintain rational composure, disinterest, and neutrality--social-psychological conditions that are typically impossible to achieve for involved group members. As an outside consulting team with a heterogeneous role mix, the cadre consultants can empathize with . . . various role-takers within their client groups. And when the cadre finds that it can not be disinterested or neutral, as when conflicts run too high or when the board or superintendent want consultation, then it can link potential clients in the district with appropriate external consultants (pp. 273-274).

Gives examples of the work of cadres and describes their structure, their tactics, and their training. Includes an evaluation of the Eugene cadre.

545. Schmuck, Richard A. Participants as consultants to themselves. In G.S. Harman and R.H. Millikan (Eds.), Perspectives on educational consultation. In press. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

[After 12 years of research, Runkel and I were at a place] not affectively divergent from Holden Caulfield's occupational myth of acting resolute and vigilant in keeping wandering, naive, creatures from falling into an abyss. . . .

We quickly learned, however, even in the face of our success in using OD consultation for school improvement, that many of the organizational participants can become dependent on their "catchers." Indeed, the OD consultant's charisma, while a definite advantage in the short run, can become a major drawback in the long run. . . .

It was naturally a major concern in our designing, therefore, to explore creative ways of gracefully removing ourselves from interdependent and supportive relationships with the participants. . . .

We decided on a strategy for disseminating OD in which practicing educators themselves would take on the formal and legitimate functions of the OD consultant in relation to one another. Such peer consultation could be structured through horizontal interactions among organizational cousins (those who hold jobs within the same school district, but who are not members of the same interdependent task unit). Thus, in contrast to placing normative emphasis on expertise, peer consultation could gain legitimacy through norms in support of collegial responsibility and peer helpfulness. OD cadres made up of peer-colleagues would offer an alternative to the traditional professional-client helping relationship. We have established peer cadres of OD specialists within three school districts and consultants elsewhere have by now created five other cadres. -- from the chapter.

546. Schmuck, Richard A. Organization development for the 80s. In H. Gray (Ed.), *Management of educational institutions: Practice, consultancy, and research*, in press. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Reviews findings from research on organization development in schools and proposes likely future uses of OD in schools.

For information about publication, write to the author ar DEPM, COllege of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, OR 97403.

547. Schmuck, Richard A. and Matthew B. Miles (Eds.) *Organization development in schools*. Palo Alto, CA: National Press Books (now Mayfield Publishing), 1971. Reprinted by University Associates, San Diego, CA., 1976. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

For annotations of some of the contents, see Schmuck (1971), Schmuck, Runkel, and Langmeyer (1969), Bigelow (1971), Fosmire, Keutzer, and Diller (1971), McElvaney and Miles (1971), and Goodson and Hagstrom (1971).

Reviewed by C.B. Derr in *Education and Urban Society*, November 1972; by C. Fincher in *Contemporary Psychology*, 1972, 17(12), 658-660; by M. Felsen in *Educational Technology*, 1972, 12(10), 60; and by G. Wiley in Pfeiffer and Jones (Eds.), *Annual handbook of group facilitators*, San Diego: University Associates, 1974.

548. Schmuck, Richard A. and Jack E. Nelson. The principal as convener of organizational change. *Research Reports in Educational Administration*, Vol. 2, No. 2, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Colorado, Boulder, 1970. Excerpted in S. Christie and others, *The problem solving school: Guidelines for collaborative and systematic problem solving: Development team handbook*. Dayton, OH: IDEA, 1972; pp. 7-9. ERIC order number Ed 060 521. [S, Lea, Tea]

The authors propose that a principal, instead of making all decisions himself, should convene faculty, staff, and student groups to help bring conflict into the open and to work on organizational problems systematically. This "team-leader" role assumes that team members are intelligent, competent, and want to perform well; and that an open organizational climate with high trust and esprit facilitates group problem solving procedures. (RA in *Research in Education*, 1972)

549. Schmuck, Richard A. and Phillip J. Runkel. *Organizational training for a school faculty*. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1970. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The CASEA [now CEPM] team worked to improve Highland Park by increasing the communicative abilities of its groups, so that honest, direct, and innovative action could be internally and independently developed by the resident school faculty. Using summer workshops, small group interaction, and periodic "intervention" throughout the school year, the report claims that a number of desirable outcomes were at least partly due to the intervention. Many teachers began using a greater variety of more effective group techniques in their classrooms. Collaborating groups of teachers increased in strength and number. The Principal's Advisory Committee became potently and specifically representative rather than merely advisory. -- Excerpted from Maguire, Temkin, and Cummings (1971).

See also the summary by Schmuck, Runkel, and Langmeyer (1969).

The study used questionnaires from the Cooperative Project for Educational Development (COPED). For other reports from COPED or from projects using COPED's questionnaires, see COPED (1970), Hilfiker (1970), Luke and Mial (1971), Manno (1969), Thomas Stephens (1974), and Goodwin Watson (1967).

For a follow-up evaluation of the Schmuck and Runkel study, see Simons (1974).

550. Schmuck, Richard A. and Philip J. Runkel. Integrating organizational specialists into school districts. In W.W. Burke (Ed.), *Contemporary organization development: Conceptual orientations and interventions.* Washington, DC: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 1972; pp. 168-200. ERIC order number ED 061 617. [S, Int, OrF, Lin, OD]

Benefits and difficulties in establishing and making use of a cadre of organizational specialists in a school district. Brief report on the two cadres established by 1972.

551. Schmuck, Richard A. and Philip J. Runkel. Group processes. In H.E. Mitzel (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (5th ed.) New York: Macmillan, 1982. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Mot]

The last decade has seen a remarkable convergence of research findings and interpretations of them among investigators of social influence. The overlaps among their proposals encourage use to believe that they have got hold of some important and reliable features of the way we humans influence one another.

At least two writers have revised Maslow's (1954) theory of developmental stages in the salience of needs, which ran from a concern with physical security through a concern with one's social relations to a concern with "self-actualization"--that is, exercizing one's capacities to the fullest. Alderfer (1969 and 1972, for example) has conducted experimentation that shows different ages and circumstances that bend one's concern to matters of sheer existence, of relatedness to others, or of the growth of one's capacities. Harrison (1979) describes influence as operating through three facets. His facet of "level" contains the stages of sustenance, self-definition, and generativity, the first and last of which are very like the first and last stages of Maslow and of Alderfer. Self-definition overlaps with the middle stages of those two authors because we always "define" ourselves to a considerable degree by our relations with others. Alderfer and Harrison, like Maslow, put forward their developmental categories as needs that can become salient at certain times, and can therefore open the individual to influences that promise to answer those needs. Harrison makes the useful point that the individual's time-perspective at the earliest stage is relatively short, and predicting the effects of influence is relatively easy, whereas time-perspective at the latest stage is long, and prediction is more difficult.

Boulding (1978) says we deal with one another in three domains: the polity (which operates chiefly through threat), the economy (which operates chiefly through exchange), and the integry (which operates chiefly through integrative process such as affection, trust, cooperation, and coordination or roles). Obviously, one can influence another by threat, by offering the exchange of goods and services, and by offering (or withholding) affection and trust. Harrison's (1979) second facet, that of "needs," overlaps some with Boulding's categories; Harrison's categories are political-economic, social, and competence. Foa and Foa (1974), after a great deal of research, cut the pie somewhat differently. They say there are six interpersonal resources that we exchange with one another: goods, money, information, status, love, and services. We gain influence or power over another by giving (or offering to give) or withholding (or threatening to take away) one or more of those six resources.

McClelland's (1958, and McClelland et al, 1953, for example) three categories of need--achievement, affiliation, and power--have influenced much research. His category of power has the flavor of control over one's own life. DeCharms (1968 and 1976, for example) introduced the concepts of being a "pawn" (being pushed around at the will of others) or an "origin" (being confident of the desirable results of initiating one's own actions). DeCharms has shown strong correlations among school children between being an origin and academic achievement. He has also demonstrated that children can be trained to be origins.

Berlew and Harrison (1979) and Harrison and Kouzes (1980) have proposed four "styles" or methods of influence. One way to exert influence (or control or coordination) is to use charisma, which Berlew and Harrison call "common vision" and which means, to use Berlew's (1974) definition, (a) expressing for the others their values and aspirations, (b) enabling them to see that it is within their power to take action, and (c) convincing them that the time to act is now. A second way to exert influence is through participation of every member and showing them that their contributions are valued, exposing one's own resources, desires, and emotions, and putting trust in the abilities and intentions of others. A third way is to use assertive persuasion--to argue for and against proposals. The fourth way is that of reward and punishment. That includes setting standards for others and bargaining with competitors. The four styles of influence have been validated through use in a great many training programs.

In his article mentioned earlier, Harrison (1979) offers two more categories: (a) separation, meaning a desire to act alone, and (b) unification, meaning a desire to act in concert with others. Separation overlaps with McClelland's power. We shall mention the overlaps of unification with categories of other writers below.

Some older sets of categories should be mentioned. Longabaugh (1963), after experiments with children, offered the three categories of dominance-submission, love-hostility, and activity-passivity. French and Raven (1959) proposed five categories that enable one to exert power or influence over others: having information, exerting coercion or reward, being a member of a reference group (referent power), being an expert, and having legitimizing power. In 1961, Foa noted a convergence in the literature showing the ubiquity of relations of dominance (or submission) and love (or hate) in human groups.

We find six threads running through the various categories. A category of one writer is rarely identical with that of another, but we think there are strong overlaps. We list below the categories that seem to us to lie along each of the six threads. One category sometimes appears under two headings when we thought it partook of both. Our classification may not suite all readers.

> *Existence*: Maslow's security; Alderfer's existence; Foa and Foa's goods, money, and services; Boudling's economy; Harrison's sustenance and political-economic.
>
> *Role and status*: French and Raven's legitimate; Foa and Foa's status; Berlew and Harrison's common vision; Harrison's self-definition.
>
> *Information*: French and Raven's information and expert; Foa and Foa's information; Berlew and Harrison's assertive persuasion.
>
> *Cohesiveness and affection*: Maslow's social; McClelland's affiliation; French and Raven's reference-group; Longabaugh's love-hostility; Alderfer's relatedness; Foa and Foa's love; Berlew and Harrison's participation-and-trust; Harrison's social and unification; Boulding's integry.
>
> *Competence and growth*: Maslow's self-actualization; McClelland's power and achievement; French and Raven's expert; Longabaugh's activity-passivity; DeCharms' origin-pawn; Alderfer's growth; Harrison's generativity, competence, and separation.

Reward and punishment: McClelland's power; French and Raven's coercion-or-reward; Longabaugh's dominance-submission; DeCharm's origin-pawn; Berlew and Harrison's reward-and-punishment; Harrison's political-economic; Boulding's polity (pp. 744-745).

(The above is quoted from "Group Processes" by Philip J. Runkel and Richard A. Schmuck. Excerpted with permission of The Free Press, a Division of Macmillan Publishing Company, from Encyclopedia of Educational Research, Fifth Edition, Harold E. Mitzel, Editor in Chief, Vol. 2, pages 743-753. Copyright 1982 by the American Educational Research Association.)

For other writings on motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

552. Schmuck, Richard A. and Patricia A. Schmuck. A humanistic psychology of education: Making the school everybody's house. Palo Alto, CA: National Press Books (now Mayfield), 1974. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Mot]

This is a book on the application of the behavioral sciences to education, but it is not a typical text. Rather, along with its clarifying analyses of current psychological theories and research in education, it offers both a call to action and some concrete paths to follow. [This book] is different in that it focuses on the quality of the environment in schools and emphasizes planned change. It also offers a succinct philosophy of why schools should be humanized. -- Publisher's blurb.

For a review see F.B.W. Hankinshire in Contemporary Psychology, 1976, 21(1), 51-52.

A portion of the book is reprinted as: A practical guide to group development. In M.L. Silberman, J.S. Allender, and J.M. Yanoff (Eds.), Real learning: A sourcebook for teachers. Boston: Little, Brown, 1976; pp. 209-221.

553. Schmuck, Richard A. and Patricia A. Schmuck. Formal and informal aspects of classroom life: Can they be harmonized for academic learning? The History and Social Science Teacher, Canada, 1976, 12(2). [S, Cl, Ef, Mot]

This article discusses the interdependence of the personal concerns of a student's life with the academic efforts and shows ways in which these two aspects can be harmonized for a more successful school experience.

554. Schmuck, Richard A. and Patricia A. Schmuck. Group processes in the classroom. (3rd ed.) Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown, 1979. Fourth edition in press for 1983. [S, Cl, Ef, Ev, Int, OrF, Lea, Mot]

Contents: Basic concepts, Group processes, Leadership, Attraction, Norms, Communication, Cohesiveness, Developmental stages, Organizational characteristics, and Conflict. Describes diagnostic instruments for assessing classroom climate and many practical methods for altering customary procedures.

555. Schmuck, Richard A., Jane Arends, and Richard Arends. Tailoring consultation in organization development for particular schools. *School Psychology Digest*, 1974, 3(4), 29-40. [S, Int, OD]

Offers three guidelines for consultants that take into account special attributes of school organizations: (1) continually restate the goals of the consultation, (2) be prepared to undertake special procedures for increasing the readiness of the client organization, and (3) make it clear that successful OD requires sustained effort over many months. Two guidelines are based on the sequential and cyclic nature of OD: (4) carefully assess progress at each stage to ascertain how much of earlier stages needs to be re-cycled and (5) be sure the macro-design includes micro-designs for recycling the processes of trust-building, goal-setting, and diagnostic information-gathering. The dynamics of entry yield three guidelines: (6) establish a clear, supportive, and collaborative relationship with key authorities, (7) engage all participants in introductory demonstrations and contract building, and (8) clarify interpersonal perceptions, feelings, and motivations to the point where the consultants are sure of some ways they can help and want to help and clients are sure of some ways the consultants can help and of their wilingness to be helped in those ways. Four guidelines are connected with diagnosis: (9) tell clients early that a formal diagnosis will precede training, (10) insist on collecting data on present conditions, including the state of any follow-up or lack of it on previous problem-identifications, (11) use both formal and informal methods of data-collection, and (12) use diagnostic data for feedback to clients and for further planning. Considerations in the design of interventions yield four guidelines: (13) do not let the consultants' personal motives, knowledge, or preferred skills outweigh the evidence on the kinds of activities and sequences that will best reach the goals of the intervention, (14) adapt the themes of training, data feedback, confrontation, and process consultation to the local situation, (15) build the macro-design to encompass the mode of intervention, the focus of attention, and diagnosed problems, and (16) phase the work to meet short-term and long-term intervention goals, and include time to renegotiate the plan when unexpected events occur.

556. Schmuck, Richard A., Philip J. Runkel, and Daniel Langmeyer. Improving organizational problem solving in a school faculty. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 1969, 5(4), 455-482. Winner of the 1969 McGregor Award. Reprinted in *ISR Journal of Education Personnel Relations*, 1970, 2(2), 69-93. Adapted and retitled "Using group problem-solving procedures" in R.A. Schmuck and M.B. Miles (Eds.), *Organization development in schools*. San Diego, CA: University Associates, 1976; pp. 51-69. Reprinted in W.W. Burke and H.A. Hornstein (Eds.), *The social technology of organization development*. Fairfax, VA: NTL Learning Corp., 1972; pp. 286-306. Reprinted in Joel Meyers, Roy Martin, and

Irwin Hyman, School Consultation. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas, 1977; pp. 285-313. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

This article also appears as the first (summary) chapter of Schmuck and Runkel (1970); see the latter for abstract.

557. Schmuck, Richard A., Philip J. Runkel, Jane H. Arends, and Richard I Arends. Second handbook of organization development in schools. Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield, 1977. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

[This book] is, according to its authors, a "tool kit" designed especially for "organizational specialists" trained to operate as a coordinated team, and for administrators and teachers as an aid to understanding and acting on the organization of the school. This volume is, without doubt, the single best compendium of exercises, designs, and experiments appropriate to Organization Development (OD) that I have seen anywhere. However, it is more than just a tool kit, and is far more important. . . .

[The authors] explain that OD is a means of helping schools become self-correcting, self-renewing systems of people open to change and able to respond with new programs. OD promises to help school people improve their organization, achieve new ways of interacting despite frustration, understand themselves and their circumstances, identify their goals, and carry out their commitments. . . .

The chapters range over the entire OD repertory and more. Beginning with a solid chapter on the theory and technology of OD, the book covers, in a systematic, splendidly organized way the areas of diagnosis, communication, goals, conflict, meetings (and how to improve them), problem solving, decision making, "macrodesigning"--the comprehensive OD blueprint that charts the manner in which basic organizational changes are sequenced and institutionalized--"microdesigning"--the specific events that taken together make up the master plan of change--and evaluation. The concluding chapter discusses the institutionalization of change.

Each chapter begins with a general discussion of the main topic and progressively narrows the focus to its application to a school system. Case studies help to clarify abstract concepts and the authors take special care to present the appropriate methods whereby their interventions take life and become implanted. . . .

. . . were I to choose one book to provide a solid, thoughtful, and practical OD guide, it would be this volume. . . . The book does what it sets out to do, and it does it with exceptional finesse and competence. -- Warren Bennis in Harvard Educational Review, 1980, 50(2), 281-282. Copyright 1980 by the President and Fellows of Harvard College. Reprinted by permission.

558. Schmuck, Richard A., Donald Murray, Mary Ann Smith, Mitchell Schwartz, and Margaret Runkel. Consultation for innovative schools: OD for

multiunit structure. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1975. [S, Int, OrF, Tea, OD]

This project was launched in 1970 to test whether OD could help six elementary schools in Eugene and Springfield, Oregon to install and maintain teaching teams. Actually, the schools wanted to install team teaching with "multiunit" structure, which requires an "instructional improvement committee" containing the principal and the team leaders.

The design comprised two schools in which the entire faculty received a week of initial training and then follow-up consultation (called "OD" schools), four schools in which only a representative group of about five persons (including the principal) received the week of initial training, with the entire school receiving follow-up consultation from the representative group with outside help (called "GD" schools, for "group development"), and two schools that received the same salary increments for team leaders the other schools received, but were given summer workshops with a content different from that given to the OD and GD schools (the "control" schools). The initial week's training occurred in August of 1970, and follow-up consultation ran through the school year.

Outsiders administered questionnaires to all the schools in the springtimes of 1970, 1971, and 1972. Data were also collected via documents produced by the leaders of the teaching teams, by direct observation, and finally by systematic interviews done in the late fall of 1972.

Two of the GD schools encountered severe difficulties in trying to organize themselves into teams and into multiunit structure. Furthermore, both principals displayed increasing ambivalence toward the project as the months went by. One of those GD schools dropped out of the project in December and the other in February.

A year after the consultation ended, principals and leaders of teaching teams were interviewed at the OD schools and the two remaining GD schools. Fifteen questions that constituting criteria for full attainment of team teaching and multiunit structure. On those 15 questions, one OD school scored at 95 percent of full attainment, and the other scored at 60 percent. One of the GD schools scored at 82 percent and the other at 78 percent.

The two control schools had been among those that had applied to be part of the project. When they were not selected, both schools sought OD consultation from others. The principal in one school attended an intensive OD workshop in 1971 and used a substantial amount of outside OD consultation in 1971-72. Evidences of structural changes, team teaching, and instructional changes were obvious at that school in 1972-73. The other control school also used some OD consultation in 1971-72, but only a small amount. No evidences of team teaching or multiunit structure appeared at that school.

At both the OD schools, the percentages of faculty agreeing on educational goals rose from 1970 through 1971 and 1972. That might be taken to imply that the two schools should have shown comparable increases on indicators of the sort of collaboative relations necessary to achieve and maintain team teaching and multiunit structure. That, however, was not the case. The case studies of the two schools showed that one school gave primary attention during 1970-71 to building new interpersonal norms, and then moved successfully into the new structure in 1971-72. The other school pressed hard to get the structure in place during 1970-71. In the first school, many indicators of interpersonal dynamics from the questionnaires fell in 1971, but then leaped upward in 1972. In the other school, the same indicators fell or sometimes rose slightly in 1971 and then fell still further in 1972. That pattern appeared, for example, in answers to "How satisfied are you with your personal relationships with fellow teachers?" "How satisfied are you with your personal relationships with administrators in the school?" "How satisfied are you with the extent to which your efforts and achievements are recognized by others?" and "How much influence do you feel teachers as a group have on how your school is run?" Those results seem to argue that interpersonal norms and process should come before structure.

On questionnaire items like those just quoted, the two GD schools that stayed in the project made small to large increases in 1971 and 1972. The two schools that dropped out of the project showed precipitous drops in most items from 1970 to 1971. The two control schools showed few changes on the items.

The authors concluded that three of the six experimental schools moved fully into multiunit structure or very close to it, and a fourth made significant progress toward that goal. Considering the number of failures of such strong organizational changes reported in the literature, the authors concluded that three and a half out of six was a good score. Furthermore, the two schools that dropped the effort did so decisively after a few months. That agrees with experience reported by Runkel, Wyant, Bell, and Runkel (1980)--that OD training helped schools that dropped an innnovation to renounce it firmly, not to go on toying with it.

559. Schneider, Joseph and Edwin A. Locke. A critique of Herzberg's classification system and a suggested revision. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1971, 6(4), 441-457. [N, E, Mot]

. . . Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfacction may . . . be an artifact . . . of the system used to classify the incidents. It is shown that Herzberg's classification system confuses two levels of analysis, events (what happened), and agents (who made it happen). A new classification system was developed which classified separately by event and agent. The implications of the results concerning events for Herzberg's theory and method are discussed. (authors' abstract)

560. Schofield, Dee. Community involvement in educational governance. *School Leadership Digest*, No. 15, 1975. ERIC Order No. ED 112 455. [S, Env]

A 31-page review of recent research.

561. Schofield, Dee. Conflict management in education. *School Leadership Digest*, No. 10, 1975. ERIC Order No. ED 101 414. [S, OrF, Lea]

A 31-page review of recent research.

562. Schofield, Dee. Community schools. *School Management Digest*, No. 15, 1978. Order No. ED 162 388 from the Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. [S, OrF]

A 48-page review of recent research.

563. Schofield, Janet Ward. School desegregation and intergroup relations. In D. Bar-tal and L. Saxe (Eds.), *Social psychology of education: Theory and research*. Washington, DC: Hemisphere (distributed by Wiley), 1978; pp. 329-363. [S, Int, OrF, Env]

The most striking feature of the literature on desegregation and intergroup relations is the inconsistency of the findings of different studies. This paper explores the reasons for this inconsistency and suggests new directions which may make future research more fruitful. Factors contributing to this inconsistency include (a) the lack of refined theoretical work on desegregation, (b) too little attention to the precise nature of the desegregated settings studied, (c) a focus on a narrow range of outcomes of desegregation coupled with little attention to the processes which lead to such outcomes, and (d) a variety of complex and not easily resolved methodological problems. Future work on desegregation and intergroup relations should concentrate on conceptualization and theory building which suggests more precisely which aspects of the desegregated situation are likely to have an effect on students and how and why such effects are likely to occur. -- from the Catalog of Publications of the Learning Research and Development Center, Pittsburgh.

564. Schwartz, Mitchell, Nina Steefel, and Richard A. Schmuck. *The development of educational teams*. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1976. [S, Int, OrF, Tea, OD]

This 155-page booklet serves as a practical introductory guide to developing effective educational teams in school districts. Aimed at both preservice and inservice audiences. [It] shows how teams can be used to support collaboration and mutual problem-solving at all levels of the school district and describes salient issues related to the development of educational teams. [The booklet] discusses various qualities and processes that nurture functional and adaptive educational teams and presents methods for increasing their effectiveness. In addition, it offers practical strategies for helping school personnel examine their team communication patterns, goals clarification procedures, conflict processes, problem-solving methods, and decision-making procedures. Finally, *The Development of Educational Teams* provides an introduction to consultative strategies for building and maintaining self-renewing educational teams. An annotated bibliography of relevant readings for educators is included at the end of each chapter. --Publisher's blurb

565. Scriven, Michael. Self-referent research, Part I. *Educational Researcher*, 1980, 9(4), 7-11. Part II, 1980, 9(6), 11-18, 30. Copyright 1980, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [S, Ev, Env]

Far be it from me to suggest that the most productive use of educational researchers' time is to look at educational research. Philosophers who do nothing but discuss the nature of philosophy make little contribution to either society or intellect. But huge efforts at educational research (or philosophical research) must be attended by much smaller but still significant efforts to improve the process for doing it, and funding it, and implementing it; and we do very little of this (p. 8).

What do we do with our theoreticians? Retread them and retrain their students, not away from the search for causes and explanations and insights, but away from a simple-minded picture of the way to obtain those. Language is a better model of complex human behavior than the motion of small particles or large planets. We understand language; we understand many unpredictable and unprecedented linguistic events; we often understand why language is used. Yet we know no exact or statistical rules or laws of language. These are the patterns we must learn to find and describe in the study of teaching and administration and learning (p. 9).

No sound-minded manufacturer would research and develop a new product with the incompetence we show in researching and developing a credentialing or research-funding process. It is at the research on research, training of trainers or research on funding--the meta-level--level that we fail (p. 30).

See also Feyerabend (1978) and Sarason (1978).

566. Seashore, Stanley E. and D.G. Bowers. Durability of organizational change. *American Psychologist*, 1970, 25(3), 227-233. [N, Int, OrF]

. . . in the Weldon Manufacturing Corporation. . . . the new owners launched a change program that included technical system changes, widespread training, more careful selection, revised payment systems, and increased participation in decision making and problem solving at all levels. Results included positive attitude changes, increased return on capital and production efficiency, and decreased turnover and absenteeism relative both to past performance and to the company's major competitor. Follow-up research 7 years later indicated that many changes were durable over that period. -- Friedlander and Brown (1974, p. 332).

567. Seeman, Alice Z. and Melvin Seeman. Staff process and pupil attitudes: A study of teacher participation in educational change. Human Relations, 1976, 29(1), 25-40. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

Reports moderate correlations (statistically significant) between teachers' participation in dialogue, decision making, and action-taking (on the one hand) and favorable attitudes of students toward learning, school, and self (on the other). Attitudes of students were not correlated to an important degree with several teachers' background or personality characteristics: age, level of education, years of experience, generalized dogmatism, powerlessness (internal versus external orientation) or morale. Seeman and Seeman cite several studies showing correlations between students' attitudes of the kind they assessed and academic achievement.

For other writings from IDEA, see Bentzen and associates (1974), Culver and Hoban (1973), Goodlad (1975, 1977), Tye and Novotney (1975), and Williams, Wall, Martin, and Berchin (1974).

568. Segal, Mady Wechsler. Varieties of interpersonal attraction and their interrelationships in natural groups. Social Psychology Quarterly, 1979, 42(3), 253-261. [N, Mot]

This paper makes theoretical and operational distinctions among three types of attraction: friendship, liking, and respect. Predictions derived from these distinctions are tested in three natural groups: a state police force and two college football teams. Friendship is found to be more mutual than liking and liking is more mutual than respect. The degree of respect for group members varies more widely than does friendship or liking. The average friendship rating is lower than either liking or respect. Respect is more strongly related to both expressive and instrumental leadership nominations than is friendship or liking. Joint participation in leisure activities is more strongly related to friendship than to liking, and more strongly related to liking than to respect. Future research should take these differences into account. (author's abstract)

569. Shalaway, Linda. "Good news" schools share common characteristics. Educational R & D Report, 1981, 4(2), 7-13. [S, Int, OrF, Lin]

"The evidence from schools in our study reveals that teachers who are trying to do something different are succeeding, there are people to help them, and students are benefiting as a result," says David Crandall, executive director of The NETWORK. . . .

Undertaken by The NETWORK in 1978 and funded by the U.S. Department of Education, the study has documented numerous examples across the country of federally supported innovations successfully implemented in schools (p. 7).

Across the many examples of innovations successfully implemented in schools, several common characteristics emerge. . . .

One common characteristic is quick, visible results. Successful change efforts are associated with tangible outcomes, most frequently in the form of increased student achievement. . . .

Another common feature is a "critical mass" of teachers involved in the change process . . . a core group of individuals who are committee to the innovation and model it for others (p. 9).

Successful implementation of innovations occurred in those situations where princpials provided strong leadership and support for teachers. . . (pp. 9-10).

"In schools where innovations are occurring and improvements are being made, there is a tighter connection among teachers and principals," [Crandall] says. "In contemporary lingo, these schools and staffs are 'tightly,' not 'loosely' coupled". . . .

Support and orchestration from the central office are also seen as key ingredients in school change. . . .

Finally, successful innovations addressed certain needs or solved existing problems. There has to be a reason for implementing an innovation or it won't work. . . (p. 10).

570. Sharan, Shlomo. Cooperative learning in small groups: Recent methods and effects on achievement, attitudes, and ethnic relations. Review of Educational Research, 1980, 50(2), 241-271. Copyright 1980, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Mot]

Five recently published methods for conducting cooperative small-group learning in the classroom, and the experimental studies conducted by the authors of these methods are examined, evaluated, and compared in this study. The five methods are: Aronson's Jigsaw classroom, DeVries' Teams-Games-Tournaments (TGT), Slavin's Student Teams and Academic Divisions (STAD), the Johnsons' cooperative learning approach, and the Sharan's Small-group Teaching method. The former three methods are categorized as Peer-Tutoring methods, while the latter two are classified as examples of a Group-Investigation (G-I) approach. Findings are considered from experimental studies with these five methods, in terms of their differential effects on academic achievement, students' attitudes, and on ethnic relations in desegregated classrooms. The implications of the distinction between Peer-Tutoring and G-I methods are explored. New directions for research are suggested with these cooperative small-group techniques, which appear to exert noteworthy effects on a variety of cognitive and social-affective variables. (author's abstract)

571. Sherif, Muzafer, O.J. Harvey, B. Jack White, William R. Hood, and Carolyn W. Sherif. *Intergroup conflict and cooperation: The Robbers Cave experiment*. Norman, OK: Institute of Group Relations, University of Oklahoma, 1961. [N, Int, Mot]

Showed how cooperation could be produced within groups of boys, then how inter-group competition could be produced, and then how the competition could be changed to inter-group cooperation through the use of superordinate goals.

572. Shields, James J., Jr. *The crisis in education is outside the classroom*. Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1973. [S, OrF, Env, Mot]

Schools are shaped by the values, norms, and methods of social control characterizing the society as a whole, especially corporate society. Most proposals for reform of education have not proposed ways of coping with the interaction between school and society. Author describes virtues and faults from (his labels) the romantics, the structuralists, and the social reform movement. Proposes "problem-posing education" a la Friere. A lot of good sense and stern cautions in only 49 small pages.

573. Sieber, Samuel D. The organizational dilemma of educational change models. *Interchange* (Ontario Institute for Studies in Education), 1976-77, 7(2), 39-49. [S, Int, Lin]

While our first criticism of the linear model is addressed to its rationalistic bias, the second, paradoxically, is that it is not rational enough. On those occasions when an educator *is* motivated by disinterested, professional goals, his most "rational" procedure is not to move in lockstep from one state to another of an innovative effort, but to *continually reiterate* each step a time passes: by remaining alert to new information, reconsidering his initial problem analysis as events unfold, backtracking from implementation efforts when they hit a snag, tentatively trying out a solution before all the evidence is marshalled, preventing premature institutionalization by constant re-evaluation, and so forth.

The ERIC system and other resources will not reach the classroom teacher without the intermediary of extension agents with teaching backgrounds. -- from the article.

574. Sieber, Samuel D. Planning change in education. In Steven E. Goodman (Ed.), *Handbook on contemporary education*. New York: Bowker, 1976; pp. 6-17. [S, Int, Lin]

A review of the various "change agents" being promoted in education, with references to source material.

575. Sieber, Sam D., K.S. Louis, and L. Metzger. The use of educational knowledge: Evaluation of the Pilot State Dissemination Program. In H. Hug (Ed.), Evolution/revolution: Library-media-information futures. New York: Bowker, 1974. [S, Int, Lin]

To be effective in transmitting know-how, consultants should work locally and long, involve local people in planning and monitoring, adapt mutually with clients, and allow adaptation of their materials.

576. Siegel, Saul M. and William F. Kaemmerer. Measuring the perceived support for innovation in organizations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1978, 63, 553-562. [S, Ev, Int, OrF]

The development of an instrument to measure innovative organizational climate is reported. The Siegel Scale of Support for Innovativeness, in its final form, measures three factors: perceived organizational support for creativity; perceived organizational tolerance of differences; and personal commitment of members to the organization. These factors clearly and significantly differentiated between a set of six high schools with "traditional" reputations and a set of two high schools reputed to be innovative. -- abstract by Marshall Sashkin in Group and Organization Studies, 1979, 4(2), 239.

577. Sieradski, Karen. Implications of declining enrollments for schools. School Leadership Digest, No. 17, 1975. ERIC Order No. ED 114 906. [S, OrF, Env]

A 32-page review of recent research.

578. Silberman, Charles E. Crisis in the classroom: The remaking of American education. New York: Random House, 1970. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

Based on a three and one-half year study commissioned by the Carnegie Corporation, this broad indictment of all levels of education is based on a thorough review of the literature, extensive interviews and correspondence with educators and critics, and first-hand investigation in more than 100 schools by the author and in about 150 more schools by his three-member staff.

Silberman finds the schools to be "intolerable," severely afflicted by "mindlessness," operating on the assumption of distrust, offering a banal and trivial curriculum, and preoccupied with order and control (which in turn creates discipline problems, rather than eliminating them). More than 200 examples of school practice are provided in support of these charges, which are no less severe than those made by the so-called "romantic" critics of the past decade. -- Michael Marien (1971).

For other writings on powerlessness and other motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

579. Simmelkjaer, Robert J. Evolution of an urban educational reform. Educational Forum, 1979, 43(4), 261-483. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Reviews the history of the ten-year involvement of the Economic Development Council (composed of approximately three hundred corporations) with the New York City educational system. Discusses the involvement in two phases: the partnership phase, which included a feasibility study, and the renewal phase, which employed organizational development. Examines facets and implications of the renewal process. -- CSS in ERIC.

See also Bassin, Gross, and Jordan (1979), Gross (1980), and Porterfield and Porterfield (1979).

580. Simons, David L. Durability of organizational training for a school faculty. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1974. [S, Int, OrF, Lea, OD]

Assesses the lasting effects of a successful organizational development intervention undertaken at Highland Park Junior High School. Supplements the reports of Schmuck, Runkel, and Langmeyer (1969) and Schmuck and Runkel (1970).

Data were obtained one year and two years after the close of the intervention. Organizational changes that occurred were documented through questionnaires, interviews, and informal observation in the target and comparison schools.

Findings indicated that during the 1968-69 school year the trained staff members did maintain favorable perceptions about the continued use of training and about the persistence of outcomes of training. However, during the last posttest year and after a successor principal took over, a definite change in perception occurred. All but three of the eleven interview questions showed a strong shift toward unfavorable responses.

The trained principal during the initial posttest period remained about the same in his leadership, managerial, and social support efforts. In contrast, the successor principal's EPL and managerial scores moved significantly in the negative direction. Only the successor's social support score continued to show improvement. The successor also did not make positive changes on more items than either of the comparison-school principals.

A new principal entering a school that has experienced organizational development must receive training with the staff. This preparation is essential if a successor and trained staff are to work together successfully and maintain the training outcomes. (excerpted, with minor changes, from author's abstract)

581. Sipple, Peter W. PNAIS: Small but growing. Independent School, 1980, 39(3), 51-52. [S, Lin]

Members of the Pacific Northwest Association of Independent Schools are determined to learn from one another and so stress association rather than competition. By extending membership to very new schools and to schools quite different from "traditional" independent schools, the association has discovered new approaches, skills, and information. -- DS in ERIC

582. Slavin, Robert E. Classroom reward structure: An analytical and practical review. Review of Educational Research, 1977, 47(4), 633-650. Copyright 1977, American Educational Reserch Association, Washington, D.C. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

The laboratory or laboratory-like research on interpersonal reward structure reviewed here supports a conclusion that, unless subjects have important resources to share or withhold at their discretion, competitive and individual reward structures are more effective than cooperative ones for increasing performance.

Classroom research over significant periods of time comparing the effects of different reward structures on performance has been scant, but there is reason to believe that further research with certain kinds of small-group cooperative structures may yet produce achievement gains for such structures.

Consistently positive effects of cooperative reward structures on social connectedness dimensions point to an important reason for continuing the search for effective cooperative reward structures--that it may be possible to permanently change the climate of the classroom in a way that promotes mutual attraction and acceptance among students.

Mixtures of cooperative and competitive or cooperative and individual reward structures appear to be the most promising avenue for producing positive effects both on academic achievement and on social connectedness (p. 647).

583. Slavin, Robert E. Student teams and achievement divisions. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 1978, 12(1), 39-49. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Env, Mot, Tea]

The research on STAD has advanced our understanding of teams in the classroom considerably. Looking at the four studies conducted to date, we can say the following with some degree of assurance: (1) Team techniques that use intensive schedules of instruction are likely to increase academic achievement more than traditional techniques, but this difference may be due primarily to the intensive schedule itself. (2) If team techniques do have positive effects on learning or on such related dimensions as percent of time on-task over and above the effects of the intensive schedule of instruction, then they have those effects primarily because of their use of cooperative teams, not because they use peer tutoring. . . . (4) Regardless of effects on achievement, STAD has unequivocal effects on cross-racial attraction and interaction. This may be the most important finding of the STAD research program. (5) Effects of STAD on attitudes are inconsistent, but the effects that were found support the usefulness of this techique for increasing such dimensions as liking of others and feeling of being liked, listing many classmates as "friends," and peer support for academic performance (p. 47).

584. Slavin, Robert E. Cooperative learning. Review of Educational Research, 1980, 50(2), 315-342. Copyright 1980, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Mot]

Research on classroom cooperative learning techniques, in which students work in small groups and receive rewards or recognition based on their group performance, has been increasing in the past few years. This review summarizes the results of 28 primary field projects lasting at least 2 weeks, in which cooperative learning methods were used in elementary or secondary classrooms. The pattern of research findings supports the utility of cooperative learning methods in general for increasing student achievement, positive race relations in desegregated schools, mutual concern among students, student self-esteem, and other positive outcomes. The various cooperative learning methods are contrasted in terms of charactristics and outcomes, and the next steps for research in this area are outlined. (author's abstract)

585. Smith, Gerald R., Thomas B. Gregory, and Richard C. Pugh. Meeting student needs: Evidence for the superiority of alternative schools. Phi Delta Kappan, 1981, 62(8), 561-564. [S, Ef, OrF, Mot]

. . . we did not expect such marked differences between these two groups of schools. We found very large differences in the degree to which the 13 schools meet students' needs for friendship and belonging, for achievement, and for self-actualization and personal growth. Alternative school students were far more satisfied with their growth opportunities in these three areas than were conventional school studetns. In addition, they were as satisfied as their conventional school counterparts with the amount of control and order in their schools.

Teachers in alternative schools share with their students the view that their schools are more successful in meeting students' needs, but little has been said about what these schools do for teachers. . . . Just as they are for many students, alternative schools seem to be more sensible, productive environments for many teachers. Our data suggest that many teachers now working in and committed to conventional schools would be likely to experience more success in alternative environments.

This study shook a number of convictions about schooling. Schools need not be small to meet students' needs. They need not be informal. Indeed, the type of program or instructional format does not seem to make a difference in meeting human needs. . . . the only characteristic of alternative schooling that seems to hold up throughout our data is the concept of free choice. Common sense leads one to conclude that individuals are more likely to value and see merit in programs they elect to attend than in those imposed upon them. But it's a good deal harder to understand why alternative school programs, which actually put into practice this concept of free choice that is central to our society, are still more likely to be viewed as aberrations to be ignored rather than as exemplars to be emulated (p. 564).

For other writings on social needs, self-actualization, and other motives in the workplace, se the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

586. Smith, Louis M. and Pat M. Keith. Anatomy of educational innovation: An organizational analysis of an elementary school. New York: Wiley, 1971. Chapter 2 abridged in J.V. Baldridge and T.E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1975; pp. 501-523. [S, Int, OrF, Lea]

A report on the attempts of one new school to set itself up as an exemplary setting. The authors try to relate problems of leadership, authority, structure, role, and other organizational and personal variables to schools in a process of innovation. Through exhaustive analysis of extensive field notes, they get underneath the language of the participants and disclose the underlying predispositions and biases of the persons in the process. -- A. Lieberman and G.A. Griffin in Teachers College Record, 1976, 77(3), 416-423.

The attempted organizational change was abandoned. See Lighthall (1973) for review.

587. Smith, Mary Ann. A comparison of two elementary schools involved in a major organizational change, or You win a few; you lose a few. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1972. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

. . . in each of four "group development" schools, a [presumed] subsystem (namely, a group consisting of the principal and six staff members), was trained in a 40-hour workshop and also received 40 hours of training during the following school year. Of the four schools, two changed to the multiunit structure and two did not. The central focus of this dissertation is to explore, through case histories, the two GD schools that differed in outcome yet seemed most similar at the beginning of training. Before any training occurred, the successful school, in contrast to the unsuccessful school (a) already had norms of spending extra time in collaborative planning, (b) initiated the training with no expectation of extra money, (c) viewed the help of the trainers as an unexpected bonus, and (d) had a principal with a clear understanding of what the multiunit school was. The subsystem in the successful school, in contrast to the unsuccessful school (a) perceived their trainers to be more competent and of high status, (b) thought the training design was relevant to their goals, (c) built a long range plan for the following year, (d) dealt with conflict during training, and (e) produced a sense of personal efficacy in at least some team members. The subsystem in the successful school differed from its counterpart in the unsuccessful school by clarifying its role as an interim group until a legitimate subsystem was chosen and by setting up a method for changing and renewing the subsystem. . . . recommendations involve ways of clarifying the innovation not only for members of the subsystem but also for all other staff, increasing the motivation of principal and staff to spend the time and effort required for implementation, and facilitating the continuing process of renewal and readjustment to establish the new roles, procedures, and goals that are required for the innovation to be effective and viable. (author's abstract)

588. Smith, Michael P. and Steven L. Nock. Social class and the quality of work life in public and private organizations. Journal of Social Issues, 1980, 36(4), 59-75. [N, Mot]

The conventional wisdom of organizational theory regards public and private bureaucracies as analytically equivalent "complex organizations." This article challenges the conventional wisdom. Our research compares public and private sector worker's perceptions of the character and quality of their work life. Public and private sector workers perceive and evaluate their jobs in substantially different ways. Blue collar workers in the public sector are a much more satisfied lot than are private sector blue collar workers. Conversely, white collar government employees are less [favorable] about the social relations and intrinsic aspects of their work than are private white collar workers. Differences such as these suggest that private sector models and assumptions are inappropriate guides for understanding worker satisfaction, alienation, and productivity in public organizations.

589. Smith, Stuart C., Jo Ann Mazzarella, and Philip K. Piele. School leadership: Handbook for survival. Eugene, OR: Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon, 1981. [S, Int, OrF, Lea, Tea]

Contains chapters on leadership, women and blacks, school-based management, team management, participative decision making, school climate, communicating, leading meetings, managing time and stress, managing conflict, and solving problems.

590. Smith, William A. The meaning of conscientizacao: The goal of Paulo Freire's pedagogy. Amherst, MA: Center for International Education, University of Massachusetts, 1976. [SN, Cl, Ef, Int, Mot]

[Freire's] writings are abstract and dense almost to the point of impenetrability. . . . We reasoned that if we could create an operational definition of conscientizacao, in other words a way of measuring it, we would have reached a clear understanding of the term. And, we would have a method of acurately gauging the level of consciousness in situations before and after efforts to raise consciousness. Our efforts as facilitators, thus, might be more fully informed and effective. This hypothesis, this way of trying to understand Freire, this set of practical goals started a three-year effort. . . . This second document provides detailed instructions for individuals who wish to learn how to measure conscientizacao, operationally.

[The] intellectual extensions of Freire's theories have provided the basis for a major project we are calling "Social Literacy Training." At present, it includes cadres of teachers in over 30 public schools in four states, three university centers and growing national interest. In general, these efforts are aimed at increasing the democratic participation of teachers, students and administrators in transforming oppressive aspects of the system of schooling. We have launched a major effort to apply Social Literacy training to the solution of problems caused by the desegregation of the Springfield (Mass.) and Hartford (Ct.) school systems. -- from the foreward by Alfred Alschuler.

See also Alschuler (1980) and Alschuler, Atkins, Irons, McMullen, and Santiago-Wolpow (1977).

591. Snyder, Wadell D. and Philip J. Runkel. Can teachers be trained to change? -- Some effects of teacher training on teacher-student interaction as assessed by Flanders' categories. Classroom Interaction Newsletter, 1975, 10(2), 19-31. [S, Cl, Ef, Int]

Reviews twelve studies in which teachers were given training, at least one goal of which was to let students exercise more initiative in classrooms and in which the measurement of the results of training used Flanders' scheme or something very similar. Results of six studies supported strongly the hypothesis that training teachers would result in certain changes in the behavior of the teachers' students. Two showed changes opposite to prediction. Results in the remaining four studies were mixed. One study (see Bigelow, 1971) was unique in directing the training not to student-teacher interaction, but to communication and problem solvilng among faculty; nevertheless, this study was one of those showing good evidence for predicted changes on the part of students.

592. Soloman, Daniel and Arthur J. Kendall. Children in classrooms: An investigation of person-environment interaction. New York: Praeger, 1979. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF]

. . . the more controlled and orderly classrooms . . . had significantly higher achievement scores. . . . [Disorganized] classes perceived significantly more disruptiveness. . . . [Permissive and expressive] classes had higher activity and curiosity scores. . . . Cluster 2 students (high achievement and high self-confidence) did best in class Clusters 2 and 4 (controlled and orderly). . . . Lower SES students did best . . . in relatively "warm" classrooms. -- Lyn Corno in Contemporary Psychology, 1980, 25(5), 384-385.

593. Sommer, Robert. Hawthorne dogma. *Psychological Bulletin*, 1968, 70, 592-595. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

The Hawthorne effect is generally considered an experimenter error to be avoided in psychological research. That view is largely conditioned by the bias toward single variable laboratory research. In field studies Hawthorne effects are the rule rather than the exception. (author's abstract)

594. South, Oron. Diffusing a system. *Education and Urban Society*, 1976, 8(2), 183-195. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

Recounts four years of OD activities in the Monroe County (Florida) School District. The strategic issue was "how to design a process by which a system redesigns itself and in the process diffuses a new system" (p. 189).

595. Spicer, Edward H. (Ed.) *Human problems in technological change: A casebook*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1952. [N, Int, Env, Mot, Lin]

Resistance is not necessarily a condition of change. Once resistance is seen as a symptom of special conditions rather than as a constant element, it becomes possible to discover causes of success and failure of change efforts through the study of cases in which resistance appears. Through the use of successful and unsuccessful case examples, this book seeks to demonstrate the factors related to the success and failure of cross-cultural change efforts. Case study analysis reveals these generalizations: people resist changes which threaten basic security; they resist proposed changes they do not understand; and they resist being forced to change. Guidelines for the study and analysis of the effects of technological innovation are included. Recurrent groups of problems are identified for use in diagnosing or solving human problems (problems of cultural linkage, of social structure, of the role of the innovator, of cultural bias, etc.). A master checklist which might be used for gathering information on proposed change in a wide variety of situations is given, and would appear to be of value to both administrations and consultants. -- NIMH (1971).

Includes a collection of anthropological studies. Schools are not included, but the cases are instructive.

596. Spring, Joel. *The sorting machine: National educational policy since 1945*. New York: David McKay, 1976. [S, Ef, Env]

... I began to understand more clearly the economic and social forces that produced the National Defense Education Act and the new mathematics and science curriculums of the latter part of the decade. All these events seemed to serve the needs of a foreign policy designed to contain communism and protect the interests of American corporate expansion into foreign markets. The one outstanding contradiction to these trends during the 1950s was the civil rights movement with its concern about inequality in schooling and its potential for organizing the poor and creating social-class conflict. I wanted to understand how the potential revolutionary nature of this movement was contained. I found this in a theory of poverty which denied class conflict and used education as an instrument for maintain social order. . . . This led to an interest in discussions about career education and equality of opportunity during the Nixon administration and how they fit into the general trends of educational development since World War II. --from the preface.

597. Starling, William. An unsuccessful attempt to implement an educational innovation: A case study. Doctoral dissertation. University of Oregon, 1973. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The faculty [of an elementary school] was given the opportunity to move toward differentiated staffing in a multi-unit structure after all but two of them voted to become involved in the project. The principal and four of the teachers received five days of training--resembling consultation in organization development--in communication skills, goal setting, decision making, and problem solving to facilitate movement toward the new school structure. At the end of four months after the training, staff members were confused, unhappy, and voted to withdraw from the project. Nine hypotheses received some support from [the] data. . . . (author's abstract)

598. Stavrianos, Leften Stavros. *The promise of the coming dark age*. San Francisco: W.H. Freeman, 1976. [N, OrF, Env]

The age commonly called the Dark Ages was in fact a period when a new Western Civilization was about to take shape. Stavrianos says:

> But the fact is that history offers examples of things seeming darkest before the dawn--of significant forces being unrecognized or ignored and passing difficulties exaggerated. This was the case with Europe's fourteenth-century slump when everything went wrong--a series of crop failures and famines, the devastating Black Death, and the Hundred Years' War between England and France as well as other conflicts in Germany and Italy. Yet the following fifteenth century witnessed a remarkable resurgence of civilization, which in retrospect was clearly the product of long-range trends. These included medieval technological advances that stimulated productivity in agriculture, mining, and handicrafts; provided the economic base for population increase; quickened local and interregional commerce; and together with concurrent intellectual movements furnished the material and human resources as well as the social dynamism for expansion into Eastern Europe, the Holy Land, and later to overseas continents and eventual global hegemony (pp. viii-ix).

The trends Stavrianos foresees appear in the chapter headings: (1) Dark ages: Old and new, (2) Grass growing everywhere, (3) From aristotechnology to demo-technology, (4) From boss control to worker control, (5) From representative democracy to participatory democracy, (6) From self-subordination to self-actualization.

599. Stein, Barry A. and Rosabeth Moss Kanter. Building the parallel organization: Creating mechanisms for permanent quality of work life. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1980, 16(3), 371-388. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

This paper deals with both a need and a reality. The need: to design organizations that are responsive to both their environments and their people in terms of the unique character of the 1980s. The reality: Models already exist to show what a new, responsive organization might look like, and how it could be integrated with existing bureaucracies. Out of two decades or so of experience with diverse "quality of work life" activities, models have emerged that lead to what we call "parallel structures": flat, flexible, but formal problem-solving and governance organizations that serve to supplement bureaucracy and exist side by side with it, not to replace it (p. 371).

600. Stephens, J.M. The process of schooling: A psychological examination. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1967. [S, Cl, Ef, Env, Mot]

The theory of spontaneous schooling; implications and elaborations. Questions what can reasonably be attempted in schools. "When he looks at the evidence, the teacher of reading or arithmetic can find much reason for optimism. Some success is the rule. True enough, many onlookers will claim that the gains are disappointing in their extent. But no one can claim that there is no gain whatever. In the area of character, on the other hand, the picture is quite different" (p. 110). Asks whether reformers are working with forces that are very small compared to the primordial human urges and societal trends.

601. Stephens, Thomas. Innovative teaching practices: Their relation to system norms and rewards. Educational Administration Quarterly, 1974, 20(1), 35-43. [S, Cl, Int, OrF]

. . . it can be said that regardless of own attitudes and perception of norms, innovative teaching was related to the reward system in the schools studied here. By way of explanation, it has been suggested that the classroom teacher is often a lone actor, immune to peer influence and responsible only to a superior [the principal], whose power is enhanced by this type of social structure. . . . The innovative superintendent and board do not have direct control over teacher behavior; any change attempts will be mediated by the principal and need his [or her] cooperation and visible encouragement (p. 42).

The study used questionnaires from the Cooperative Project for Educational Development (COPED). For other reports from COPED or from projects using COPED's questionnaires, see COPED (1970), Hilfiker (1970), Luke and Mial (1971), Manno (1969), Schmuck and Runkel (1970), and Goodwin Watson (1967).

602. Stipek, Deborah J. and John R. Weisz. Perceived personal control and academic achievement. Review of Educational Research, 1981, 51(1), 101-137. Copyright 1981, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [S, Cl, Ef, Mot]

Perceived control of events is one motivational variable that appears to affect children's academic achievement. In this review the conceptualization and measurement of the control dimension is discussed from three theoretical perspectives: social learning theory, attribution theory, and intrinsic motivation theories. For each of these three perspectives evidence on the relationship between achievement and perceptions of control is summarized, and possible explanations for the relationship are discussed. Throughout this review similarities and differences among these orientations are pointed out. Specific recommendations are made for research which will advance our understanding of this relationship and which will provide the most useful information to educators. (authors' abstract)

For other writings on control of own fate and other motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

603. Sutherland, John W. A general system philosophy for the social and behavioral sciences. New York: George Braziller, 1973. [N, OrF]

In this volume, general systems theory emerges as a well-articulated and documented alternative to strict positivism and empiricism in the social and behavioral sciences. Taking a critical look at these sciences, Dr. Sutherland offers a radically new set of perspectives and procedures and a defense and explication of general systems theory in three dimensions: the theoretical, the epistemological-ontological, and the operational. His book is interdisciplinary, drawing on variables and concepts not only from the systems sciences but from various disciplines within the human science domain: anthropology, economics, social phychology, organization theory, and political science. -- Publisher's blurb.

604. Swidler, Ann. Organization without authority: Dilemmas of social control in free schools. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press, 1979. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Env, Mot]

When I read the first pages of Swidler's book, I thought it was going to be easy to write this review, because her chief points were simple, because she set them out with great clarity, and because they arose from the comparison of only two schools. Then I found Swidler adding further important ideas and weaving them into a complex net rich in meaning and implication. In the last two chapters, particularly, she connected all she had learned from the two schools with questions about changing organizations in a changing society, and the richness of her thinking there became almost formidable. With pain, I have omitted from this review dozens of Swidler's ideas that I would like to have told you about.

Two sentences from the last paragraph of *Organization Without Authority* make an excellent preface:

> The children of professionals and academics who populated Berkeley's free schools came there to learn the group skills and to act out the ideology that, in slightly altered form, provides the basis for new organizational patterns in the innovative sectors of the public and private economy. . . . As innovative work, professional autonomy, and the need for independent initiative make traditional authority unworkable, the need for ways to regulate, control, and coordinate collective effort becomes more pressing (p. 183).

Swidler describes three trends or forces in society and culture that seem to be plausible explanations for the appearance of free schools in the late 1960s and early 1970s and for the support they received from the establishment--from superintendents, school boards, federal funders, and vocal parents. The three are *rebellion cooptation*, *education upgrading*, and a growth of a *postindustrial stratum* of occupations. Group High, one of the two schols Swidler studies, was populated chiefly by the children of professional, technical, and managerial workers. Like other free schools, Group High was an experiment in new cultural or organizational patterns within which students could learn independence and self-direction.

The values of the postindustrial stratum were supported by educational upgrading: ". . . training youngsters in the habits of independent inquiry, originality, and self-motivation that characterize the upper reaches of the academic system" (p. 157). Those values, and also the pride in ethnicity that the other school, Ethnic High, strove to foster, demanded changed organizational forms.

Rebellion cooptation helps to explain the support that free and alternative schools get from the authorities. . . .

"Most of the potential advantages of free school education," Swidler concludes, "serve the educated upper-middle class, while its weaknesses are particularly damaging to poorer, less academically advantaged students" and "free schools are not likely to reduce economic or educational inequality" . . . (p. 147).

The author asserts that three conditions found in many modern work organizations drive them to search for alternate modes of organizing:

> *Uncertainty* (high rates of change or innovation) requires flexible work groups that have open patterns of communication that can coordinate themselves by mutual adjustment. *Specialized knowledge*. . . limits the effectiveness of hierarchical controls and breaks down the authority of office. *Work requiring initiative and creativity* requires new ways to inspire and motivate an organization's members (p. 175, emphasis added).

Swidler summarizes:

> What the abolition of authority really means is the abolition of formal organization itself and its replacement by a sphere of coordinated activity where individuals and groups are united by their shared engagement in a project or task (p. 176).

. . . Teachers at Ethnic High wanted to persuade students that the values and aspirations of their ethnic group were worthy and that the skills they possessed were worthy. Some teachers succeeded to a considerable degree in moving toward that goal by charismatic influence. At the same time, many black and Hispanic students aspired to be economically successful in the white world. That success required a diploma and the kind of language skills used by middle-class whites. Since the students at Ethnic High conceived of influence only as authoritarian influence, they complained that their teachers failed to make them (by punitive authoritarian means) learn basic academic skills. . . .

Swidler portrays with great clarity, penetration, and empathy, the methods of social control used in the two schools. Her illustrations of the use of appeal to community, initiative in the group, and ties of affection are especially revealing and cogent. -- P.J. Runkel in Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1981, 17(2), 272-276. Quoted by permission of JAI Press.

605. Taylor, Ronald L. and Gary L. Adams. A review of single-subject methodologies in applied settings. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1982, 18(1), 95-103. [SN, Ev]

Professors Taylor and Adams take up the general problems in single-subject methodologies and review the four major types of single-subject designs: reversal, multiple baseline, changing criterion, and multi-element designs. (editor's introduction)

606. Thomas, Charles W. and others. An application of compliance theory to the study of juvenile delinquency. Sociology and Social Research, 1977, 61(2), 156-175. [S, Ef, OrF, Mot]

Employing Amitai Etzioni's compliance theory as a theoretical model, this study evaluates application of Etzioni's theory to the influence of public schools on juvenile delinquency, suggesting that the schools exercise sufficient coercive power to evoke alienative involvement among their students and an increasing probability of student involvement in delinquency. -- JC in ERIC.

607. Thomas, Terry A. Changes in elementary school principals as a result of laboratory training. Technical Report No. 5, Eugene, Oregon: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1970. ERIC order ED 041 368. [S, Int, OrF, Lea, OD]

Response data from questionnaires administered to 204 teachers served as the basis for determining (1) changes in the interpersonal relations of elementary principals, and (2) the effect of needed changes on the social-emotional climate of their respective schools. Perceived change, organizational climate, executive leadership, tact, and collaborative decision making were measured. This report describes the resulting 5-day training laboratory attended by 28 elementary principals, and includes a list of the objectives, a list of 12 changes hypothesized as a result of the training, and a brief statistical analysis of behavior changes in a preregistered group and a nonpreregistered group. The study revealed more positive change by principals in the experimental group than by those in the control group, and showed that laboratory training in interpersonal relations affects positively the administrator's behavior with his staff and the social-emotional climate of the school. -- JK in Research in Education, 1970, 5(12), p. 32.

608. Thompson, Sydney. Class size. School Management Digest, No. 12, 1978. Order No. ED 154 471 from the Association of California School Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco, CA 94010. [S, Cl]

A 45-page review of recent research.

609. Thompson, Sydney. Motivation of teachers. School Manual Digest, No. 18, 1979. Order No. ED 179 998 from the Association of California Schol Administrators, 1575 Old Bayshore Highway, San Francisco CA 94010. [S, Mot]

A 50-page review of recent research.

610. Tjosvold, Dean. Alternative organizations for schools and classrooms. In D. Bar-Tal and L. Saxe (Eds.), Social psychology of education: Theory and research. Washington, DC: Hemisphere (distributed by Wiley), 1978, pp. 275-297. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Mot]

Centrally controlled organizations are compared with collaborative organizations in their characteristics, the student learning that occurs, the members' attitudes and abilities, and the conditions that lead to effectiveness. The study questions the reliance on central control in schools and offers alternatives that cope better with the changing values of students.

611. Torbert, William R. Creating a community of inquiry: Conflict, collaboration, transformation. New York: Wiley, 1976. [S, Int, OrF, Env, Lea, OD]

This book is about a school in struggle--a school trying to learn, a school trying to transform itself into a real community of inquiry, a school trying to change in pace with its members' changing understanding of its mission and of their own needs. The author of this book was no neutral observer, but rather the person who took the primary leadership role at the school. I too was in struggle. . . (p. ix).

I will tell the story about my two years (1966-1968) as director of an Upward Bound programme . . . with the goal of helping poverty high school students gain admission to college. . . . Consequently, the reader may be interested to read the book in the light of Jencks' finding in his massive study Inequality that Upward Bound was the only educational process at the high school level which differentially affected the likelihood of its participants attending college. . . .

Within two years I was to experience the immense satisfaction of sharing in a collaborative community that was demonstrably generating new kinds of learning and new degrees of success for our students and staff. And I was also to experience the immense distress of conflict beyond-my-ability-at-that-time-to-resolve--the immense distress of a disintegrating community which came to be regarded by the national office, according to a national staff member who visited us, as one of the six 'most dangerous' programmes among almost 300 around the country. . . .

As the book shows, my theory about what it means to organize a school collaboratively developed important new facets both during and after the programme, eventuating in a theory of historical stages of organizational development reported towards the end of the book (p. xi).

I have emphasized these three aspects of the qualities requisite for learning from experience--the articulation of action theory, the analysis of actual behavior related to intention, and the record of inner and outer experience--because I regard them as least developed in our social science and in our public life. . . .

But instead of concentrating first and foremost on the students, this book focuses more on the staff's struggles to learn and to organize effectively and on the overall changes in the school over time. The question I am most concerned with is not how to teach or create a curriculum for particular students, but rather how to organize a whole school so that it has the opportunity to become a learning environment for everyone in it. My concern is how to create a community of inquiry (p. xii).

At present, there is very little sense abroad about how to actually organize a community of inquiry--a community where no one manipulates others, but rather where everyone, teachers and students, governors and governed, doctors and patients, is transformed through their experience together.

My belief that I could contribute something special to the development of a community of inquiry stemmed from my affiliation--as a graduate student at that time--with the relatively new field of organization development. This field, like clinical therapy on the individual scale, is devoted to the practical task of helping organizations become more integrated, more adaptive and more effective. Organization development is not a technique for directly manipulating organizations, but rather strives to help them become more aware of their own processes and culture and thus gain more control over their own destiny. . . .

I wished to discover how to apply such strategies from a position internal to the organization with day-to-day lie leadership responsibilities. . . . Only after the programme was over could I begin to discern a historical progression of stages of organization development which helped to explain the changing preoccupations of the organization as a whole and, thus, the changing resonance and effectiveness of my own actions.

Whereas the field of organization development has heretofore focused on intervention, this study focuses back and forth from leadership initiatives to the overall evolution of the organizational context (p. xiii). (Reprinted by permission of John Wiley and Sons, Ltd.)

See the review in Contemporary Psychology, 1977, 22, 718-719.

612. Tosi, Henry, Ramon Aldeg, and Ronald Story. On the measurement of the environment: An assessment of the Lawrence and Lorsch environmental uncertainty questionnaires. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1973, 18(1), 27-36. [N, Ev, Env]

The authors examine the questionnaire items reported by Lawrence and Lorsch in their 1969 book as indicators of the uncertainty experienced by an organization in dealing with its environment; the authors say (p. 27): "When subscale scores are correlated with alternative measures of uncertainty, the results are disappointing. Internal reliability assessments and factors analysis of the scales suggest that the instrument is methodologically inadequate."

613. Triandis, Harry C. Interpersonal behavior. Monterey, CA: Brooks-Cole, 1977. [SN, Int, OrF]

This text includes topics on attraction, equity, aggression, conformity, perceiving the other, attribution, changing the interpersonal relationship, and teacher-pupil relations.

614. Trist, Eric. Collaboration in work settings: A personal perspective. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1977, 13(3), 268-278. [N, OrF, Env]

Uncertainty puts a premium on innovation and the flexibility and free cognitive search required for it. The rigid structures and narrow range of approved and acceptable ideas in technocratic bureaucracies discourage creativity. . . . Radical and systemic transformation becomes unavoidable, as the "organization character" itself needs to be changed.

The embodiment of these new attributes in organizational forms poses a special problem . . . by postulating two design principles between which there is a choice. [First,] whether for purposes of maintenance and renewal or of communication and adaptation, any organization requires some reserve capacity. In systems theoretic language this is called redundancy. Both design principles display redundancy, but in the first the redundancy is of parts and is mechanistic. The parts are broken down so that the ultimate elements are as simple and inexpensive as possible, as with the unskilled worker in a narrow job who is cheap to replace and who takes little time to train. The technocratic bureaucracy is founded on this type of design.

In the second design principle the redundancy is one of functions and is organic. Any component system has a repertoire which can be put to many uses, so that increased adaptive flexibility is acquired. . . . Humans have the capacity for self-regulation, so that control may become internal rather than external. Only organizations based on the redundancy of functions have the flexibility and innovative potential to give the possibility of adaptation to turbulent conditions. For it is through this redundancy of functions that their response repertoire acquires "the requisite variety". . . to meet the increased variation emanating from the environment.

From this analysis, . . . organizations may be fashioned with some hope of surviving in a turbulent environment. They will tend to be socio-ecological rather than bureaucratic in their modes of regulation, with much local autonomy and a good deal of participation and democracy. Their parts will be mutually articulated rather than arranged in strict hierarchies. This change represents a move from a coercive towards a negotiated order, the establishment and maintenance of which depend on collaboration (pp. 273-274). (Quoted by permission of JAI Press.)

615. Trist, Eric. The evolution of socio-technical systems: A conceptual framework and an action program. *Occasional Paper No. 2*. Toronto, Ontario: Ontario Quality of Work Life Center, 1981. Also in Andy Van de Ven and William Joyce (Eds.), *Organizational design and behavior*. New York: Wiley Interscience, 1981. [N, Int, OrF, Env, Tea, OD]

Section 1 traces conceptual developments and describes the landmark studies from 1950 to 1970. Section 2 explains autonomous work groups, matrices, and networks. Section 3 deals with the organization as a whole; it contains a sub-section on the difficulties of altering existing organizations. Section 4 explains trends in the society. Because of the importance of this paper as a summary of the state of the art and as a prognostication, we take space below to quote from it at some length:

Needed also was a method for analyzing work systems. This had not only to be academically defensible but communicable to workers, managers, and staff specialists who could, after some practice, become able to use it for themselves. The following [is a] nine-step model. . . .

(1) An initial scanning is made of all the main aspects--technical and social--of the *selected target system*--that is, department or plant to be studied.

(2) The unit operations--that is, the transformations (changes of state) of the material or product that take place in the target system --are then identified, whether carried out by men or machines.

(3) An attempt is made to discover the key variances and their interrelations. A variance is key if it significantly affects (1) either the quantity or quality of production, and (2) either the operating or social costs of production.

(4) A table of variance control is then drawn up to ascertain how far the key variances are controlled by the social system--the workers, supervisors, and managers concerned. Investigation is made of what variances are imported or exported across the social-system boundary.

(5) A separate inquiry is made into social-system members' perception of their roles and of role possibilities as well as constraining factors.

(6) Attention then shifts to neighboring systems, beginning with the support or maintenance system.

(7) Attention continues to the boundary-crossing systems on the input and output side--that is, supplier and user systems.

(8) The target system and its immediate neighbors are then considered in the context of the general management system of the organization as regards the effects of policies or development plans of either a technical or social nature.

(9) Recycling occurs at any stage, eventually culminating in design proposals for the target and/or neighboring systems (p. 33).

No one group in any organization can be completely autonomous. It can only be conditionally or semiautonomous. There are, nevertheless, several dimensions and degrees of autonomy. The most systematic analysis of these has been made by Susman, who . . . [distinguishes] three classes of decision: those concerning task independence, those concerning self-governance, and those concerning types of self-regulatory activity. . . .

A socio-technical theory of the efficacy of autonomous work groups is based on the cybernetic concept of self-regulation. The more the key variances can be controlled by the group, the better the results and the higher the member satisfaction. Over a large array of situations, the range of variances controllable by a group is greater than the controllable by individuals separately linked to an external supervisor. The difference in the underlying design principle is summarized in Emery's concept of "participant design". The function of supervision is to manage the boundary conditions in the group's environment so that the group itself may be freed to manage its own activities. This is a very different concept from the bureaucratic theory of control (p. 34).

Confusion has been created regarding the number of individuals suitable for inclusion in autonomous work groups. Small group theory supports an upper limit in the 8-12 range. The Tavistock mining studies, however, showed that "composite groups" tended to be much larger. A number of other studies have reported groups beyond the limit of the face-to-face range. These all tend to be complex groups with several subsets.

Another unit of analysis is required, namely the *primary work system*, which may include more than one face-to-face group along with others in matrix and network clusters. The primary work system is a functional system with a semi-independent operational identity, whether as a production or service unit. . . (p. 35).

Multiple memberships in a larger group which comprises a *social aggregate* may be postulated as lessening the dangers of overinvestment which can easily occur if the individual is bound to exclusively into one face-to-face group. These dangers have been investigated by Miller and Rice in their work on the relations between task and "sentient" group boundaries. The benefit in greater cohesion consequent on the coincidence of these boundaries tends to be offset by a greater propensity to self-sealing. The presence of a social aggregate introduces properties into a primary work system different from those of the constituent task groups. It constitutes the ground on which they are the figures. To have some ground of its own on which to stand increases the power of a group in a wider organizational setting to relate to other groups having similar standing. This enables the members of a primary work system to become a polity. . . .

The development of self-standing primary work systems containing mixes of groups with commonly shared skills, matrices whose members have partly overlapping skills, and networks of mainly specialist skills constitutes a new basis for the effectiveness of socio-technical organizations. They create organizational units of considerable 'robustness' which compose 'microsocieties' which have intragroup, intergroup, and aggregate relations with a whole operational task. These microsocieties provide considerable space of free movement to the individual. . . (p. 37).

Given well developed primary work systems, these plants had fewer levels, functions, and numbers of management personnel than conventional plants. The numbers in the workforce were also lower--often a third lower. Payment was for knowledge, not for what a person did at a particular time, so that individuals could evolve progressive work roles no longer confined by job classifications which rigidly defined wage differentials and statuses. Foremen were either nonexistent or became facilitators, trainers, and forward planners. Information was shared for the purpose of problem-solving, which became the task of everyone, not only of management. This principle gave an underlying logic to management's adopting a participant style.

Performance levels were usually above those of conventional plants with which they could be compared. Moreover, these levels improved through time. The plants were learning systems. Employees, who tended to be volunteers and who were carefully selected, preferred them to conventional plants. A number of others preferred to stay where they were.

In the last two or three years, the number of new plants developed on these lines has increased very considerably, especially in the United States. In the latest versions, the social aspect has been considered much earlier so that the ideal of joint socio-technical design is being more closely approached.

Another socio-technical design principle that has begun to affect practice is "minimum critical specification." Only the essentials are decided a priori; as much as posible is left open to be decided at later stages. . . (p. 41).

The traditional skills or organizational development have had little success with organized labor. The trust level is usually too low and the political understanding of the facilitators too inconsequential. The conflicts between management and labor are of a different character than those within management and require different methods of conflict resolution. Facilitators tend to be ignorant of labor relations and trade union history. This ignorance is not forgiven (p. 49).

Confusion regarding the forms and meaning of industrial democracy has persisted and has still not been entirely cleared up. Four different forms may be distinguished, all of which represent modes of participation and the sharing of power. They are:

1) Interest group democracy, i.e., collective bargaining, through which organized labor gains power to take an independent role vis-a-vis management.

2) Representative democracy whereby those at the lower levels of an organization influence policies decided at higher levels (workers on boards, works councils).

3) Owner democracy, as in employee-owned firms and cooperative establishments where there is participation in the equity.

4) Work-linked democracy, whereby the participation is secured of those directly involved in decisions about how work shall be done at their own level (p. 22).

616. Tucker, Harvey J. and L. Harmon Zeigler. The politics of educational governance: An overview. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1980. Order No. ED 182 799 from ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, University of Oregon. [S, Env]

Within an historical and theoretical framework, this book explores the inherent tension that exists between educational experts and laypeople.

The book offers an overview of policy levels and participants involved. Then it examines the policy-making process in local school districts, including proposal development, executive recommendation, legislative action, decision-making, and policy implementation. Recruitment of school administrators and the relationship of the community to the school board follow. The book ends with a history of the reform movement in educational governance. -- author and LD in ERIC data base.

617. Tuckman, Bruce W. Developmental sequence in small groups. Psychological Bulletin, 1965, 63(6), 384-399. [N, OrF]

After a review of relevant literature, Tuckman postulates that group-formation can be observed to go through four stages in each of two aspects. Task activity begins with (1) orientation to the task and goes on to (2) emotional responce to task demands, (3) open exchange of relevant interpretations, and (4) emergence of solutions. Group structure begins with (1) testing interdependence and goes on to (2) intragroup conflict, (3) group cohesiveness, and (4) functional role-relatedness.

For a test among groups of college students, see Runkel, Lawrence, Oldfield, Rider, and Clark (1971).

See Tuckman and Jensen (1977) for the later revision.

618. Tuckman, Bruce W. and Mary Ann C. Jensen. Stages of small-group development revisited. Group and Organization Studies, 1977, 2(4), 419-427. [N, OrF, Tea]

The purpose of this review was to examine published research on small-group development done in the last ten years that would constitute an empirical test of Tuckman's (1965) hypothesis that groups go through the stages of "forming," "storming," "norming," and "performing." Of the twenty-two studies reviewed, only one set out to directly test this hypothesis, although many of the others could be related to it. Following a review of these studies, a fifth stage, "adjourning," was added to the hypothesis, and more empirical work was recommended. (authors' abstract)

619. Tuckman, Bruce W., Kendrick M. McCall, and Ronald T. Hyman. The modification of teacher behavior: Effects of dissonance and coded feedback. American Educational Research Journal, 1969, 6, 607-620. [S, Cl, Int]

This study was concerned with the question of whether teachers whose self-perception and observed classroom behavior were discrepant (in terms of Flanders' Interaction Analysis categories) would change their behavior, perception or both as the result of feedback. Three feedback sources were compared to a no-feedback control for 24 high school teachers, classified as high or low in terms of their initial perception-behavior discrepancy. The group given direct verbal feedback was found to change significantly more than the no-feedback group while differences were found for teachers taught the IA system or those who listened to tape recordings. High discrepant teachers were found to change their self-perception more than lows.

For similar studies, see Burns (1977), Daw and Gage (1967), Gage, Runkel, and Chatterjee (1963), Hovenier (1966), Margaret Nelson (1972), and Schmuck (1973).

620. Tye, Kenneth A. and J.M. Novotney. Schools in transition: The practioner as change agent. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975. [S, Int,, OrF]

This book is for practitioners; teachers, principals, administrators and intermediate agency personnel. It is not a condemnation of the system nor a prescription for specific change; rather, it is an attempt to pull together some insights about the nature of schools and the change process for those who work in and close to schools.

Beyond providing an overview of the factors involved in educational change and suggesting strategies which could be used in overcoming obstacles to change, the authors have included a chapter offering recommendations for developing a plan of action to self-renew schools. -- Publisher's blurb.

For other reports from IDEA, see Bentzen and associates (1974), Culver and Hoban (1973), Goodlad (1975, 1977), Seeman and Seeman (1976), and Williams, Wall, Martin, and Berchin (1974).

621. Van de Ven, Andrew H. Problem solving, planning, and innovation. Part I: Test of the Program Planning Model. Human Relations, 1980, 33(10), 711-740. Part II: Speculations for theory and practice, 1980, 33(11), 757-770. [N, Int, OrF, Lin]

This longitudinal research compares the Program Planning Model (PPM) with a conventional (non-PPM) planning model in the context of creating 14 new child care programs in local Texas communities. The programs planned according to the PPM are found to have more efficient services and greater community acceptance during their first year of implementation than the programs that were developed with the conventional planning process. Due to the absence of random assignments, it is not demonstrated that these results are due to planning processes alone. However, evidence is presented that suggests the PPM projects outperformed the non-PPM projects because implementation success correlates with five key dimensions of planning behavior. Implementation success increases with: (1) participation of citizens, experts, and community interest groups; (2) involvement of a policy board representing partisan interests; (3) greater and more equal distribution of planning team effort; (4) process consultation in early planning phases; and (5) fewer deviations from the PPM procedural model in all phases of planning. (author's abstract of Part I)

The five phases of the PPM are (1) planning prerequisites, (2) problem exploration, (3) knowledge exploration, (4) program design, and (5) program implementation, evaluation, and operation.

This paper argues that the Program Planning Model (PPM) provides a normative strategy of collective action for coping with complex problems. The argument is based on seven propositions which explain how the PPM guides complex problem solving in turbulent settings and avoids several basic limitations of alternative models of collective problem solving and decision making. (author's abstract of Part II)

622. Van de Ven, Andrew H. and Dianne L. Ferry. Measuring and assessing organizations. New York: Wiley, 1980. [N, Ev]

Based on longitudinal research programs, this book describes and proposes a set of measuring instruments and process guidelines for understanding and improving work.

623. Varenne, Herve. From grading and freedom of choice to ranking and segregation in an American high school. Council on Anthropology and Education Quarterly, 1974, 5(2), 9-14. [S, Ef, Env, Lin]

[The] purpose of this research is to provide a unified cultural theory of quality and inequality in the United States that will allow us to go beyond the traditional dichotomy with which native American sociologists studying their own society believe they are confronted--the dichotomy between the myth of democracy and the reality of social class (p. 9).

624. Vaughn, James A., and Samuel D. Deep. Program of exercises for management and organizational behavior. Beverly Hills, CA: Glencoe Press, 1975. [N, Int]

Contains exercises.

625. Vroom, Victor H. and Philip W. Yetton. Leadership and decision making. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973. [N, OrF, Lea]

The elements of the model are (1) a set of 8 questions concerning the decision situation, (2) a set of 13 problem types, each of which is identified from a particular combination of yes-no responses to the 8 questions, (3) a set of 5 methods of participative decision making--one or more of which is feasible for solving each of the problems, and (4) a rule for choosing which of the feasible methods is the best. . . . in the middle and largest part of the book, the authors first forcefully argue that present theories of leadership are inadequate in that they largely disregard the very important concept that leaders adjust the degree of participation to fit the problem situation. They then review a program of empirical research designed, to a considerable extent, to demonstrate the necessity for including situational variables in an improved theory. -- G.P. Huber in Contemporary Psychology, 1975, 20(2), p. 111.

626. Wacaster, C. Thompson. The life and death of differentiated staffing at Columbia High School. In W.W. Charters, Jr. and others (Eds.), The

process of planned change in the school's instructional organization. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1973; pp. 35-51. Reprinted in J.V. Baldridge and T.E. Deal (Eds.), Managing change in educational organizations. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1975; p. 467-481. [S, Int, OrF]

What were some factors that may have contributed to the decision of the Columbia High School staff to discontinue the attempt to implement an educational innovation labeled differentiated staffing (DS)? During efforts to generate answers to this question from data collected by means of participant observation, interviewing, and document analysis, it gradually appeared . . . that values and norms . . . played a central part. . . . The values were the equality of individuals and governance by the governed, while the norms may be stated as follows: (1) the Columbia staff should make all decisions in regard to all issues affecting it, and (2) all staff members should act as equals toward each other.

The values and norms not only were incompatible with expectations of various persons in regard to control of the district DS project but also were incompatible with the following characteristics of the Columbia DS model: differential distribution of authority among organizational members; salary differentials; hierarchy. This incompatibility had the consequence of generating opposition to the DS model. The opposition in turn expressed itself untimately as votes to discontinue the attempt to implement the Columbia DS model. (excerpted from author's abstract of the dissertation on which the chapter is based)

627. Wagenaar, Theodore C. School structural composition and achievement: An empirical assessment. Sociology and Social Research, 1978, 62(4), 608-625. [S, Ef, OrF]

Correlation and regression analyses were used in a sample of 135 elementary schools to examine internal structural variables (centralization), standardization, specialized training, close supervision, size, professional freedom, and adaptability) and to examine two contextual variables (permeability and stability). -- JC in ERIC.

628. Walberg, Herbert J., Diane Schiller, and Geneva D. Haertel. The quiet revolution in educational research. Phi Delta Kappan, 1979, 61(3), 179-183. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF]

The impressive accumulation of educational research findings in the last decade seems to have gone unnoticed by many educators and the general public. . . .

Since the public and practicing educators seldom read the voluminous and scattered technical literature on education, we assembled a systematic collection of research reviews published from January 1969 to the present on instructional and related research conducted in elementary and secondary schools and institutions of higher education. . . (p. 179).

The tabulations of results . . . yield a number of consistent, positive results with definite policy and practical implications. . . .

We conclude that certain conditions and methods consistently produce certain outcomes but that no single method or set of conditions is superior on all outcomes. The greatest confidence can be placed in the effects of opportunity, exposure, and instruction on achievement, retention, and attitudes, because many experiments with random assignments of students to alternative conditions are available for analysis. Less confidence can be placed in the effects of social-psychological conditions, although many are plausible, because they have been less frequently investigated and are more often uncontrolled or statistically, rather than experimentally, controlled (p. 183).

629. Walton, Richard E. and Donald P. Warwick. The ethics of organization development. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1973, 9(6), 681-698. [N, OD]

Describes ethical dilemmas of power, freedom, and professional responsibility.

630. Waters, L.K. and Carrie Wherry Waters. An empirical test of five versions of the two-factor theory of job satisfaction. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1972, 7(1), 18-24. [N, Ev, Mot]

A test of the Herzberg theory. See also King (1970) and Schneider and Locke (1971).

631. Watson, Goodwin (Ed.) Change in school systems. Washington, DC: Cooperative Project for Educational Development by National Training Laboratories, National Educational Association, 1967. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

This book, produced for the Cooperative Project for Educational Development (COPED), is a companion volume to Concepts for Social Change. It deals with the structure and processes of the school system and presents various strategies for change which would test and develop the concepts presented in Concepts for Social Change. The school system is a social system which needs to be analyzed and mapped to find not only where it is going but where it has been. . . . Change within the school system may be aided by a relationship with a university and the development of a trainer change agent. The final paper presents a "conceptual architecture of a self-renewing school system" which includes the elements of sensing, screening, diagnosing, inventing, deciding, evaluating and revising. -- NIMH (1971).

For other reports from COPED or from projects using COPED's questionnaires, see COPED (1970), Hilfiker (1970), Luke and Mial (1971), Manno (1969), Schmuck and Runkel (1970), and Thomas Stephens (1974).

632. Watson, Hugh J., Janet M. Vallee, and William R. Mulford. Structured experiences and group development. Canberra, Australia (P.O. Box 52, Dickson, A.C.T., 2602): Curriculum Development Centre, 1981. [S, Int, OD]

Provides exercises for groups to help them achieve each of the stages set forth by Tuckman and Jensen (1977). Full guides for use are given with each exercise.

633. Weick, Karl E. Educational organizations as loosely coupled systems. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1976, 21(1), 1-19. [S, OrF]

An introduction to the uses of loose coupling as a concept in studying educational organizations and as a component in designing educational organizations.

634. Weick, Karl E. Organization design: Organizations as self-designing systems. Organizational Dynamics, 1977, 6(2), 31-46. [N, OrF, Mot]

On Friday, December 27, 1973, the Apollo 3 astronauts conducted the first daylong sit-down strike in outer space. Ther grievance concerned a problem of self-design.

To get the most information from this final trip in the Apollo program, ground control in Houston had removed virtually all the slack from the astronauts' schedule of activities and had treated the men as if they were robots. To get everything in, ground control shortened meal times, reduced setup times for experiments, and made no allowance for the fact that previous crews aboard Skylab had stowed equipment in an unsystematic manner. The astronauts' favorite pastimes--watching the sun and earth--were forbidden.

As Neal Hutchinson, flight director of the mission said, "We send up about six feet of instructions to the astronauts' teleprinter in the docking adapter every day--at least 42 separate sets of instructions--telling them where to point the solar telescope, which scientific instruments to use, and which corollaries to do. We lay out the whole day for them, and the astronauts normally follow it to a 'T.' What we've done is we've learned how to maximize what you can get out of a man in one day."

Not quite. Here's where the issue of self-design entered the picture. Edward Gibson, the civilian physicist in the Apollo 3 crew, made the following plea to ground control shortly before the strike: "I think in the future the ground should give the astronauts the bare framework of a schedule, together with a shopping list of things for them to do, and then let the guys on board figure out the best way of doing them."

This had already been done with one activity--making solar observations. Shopping lists had been designed "to allow the crewmen to work independently of ground advice in selecting targets and objectives for solar observations. These lists were originally devised to suggest to the crewmen a variety of short objectives that could be met if an extra five or ten minutes of observing time should become available. The data collected in these intervals were found to be so useful that soon the ground team was requesting specific allotments of time to be used entirely at crewmen option. Because the crewmen had the current sensor outputs . . . [they were] in the best position to select the most interesting features and programs for study. In this activity the crewmen truly performed as the alter ego of the science community."

Despite the reasonableness of general frameworks and shopping lists, mission control saw things differently. "So many jobs interfere with one another!" Hutchinson said, after the third crew had returned to earth. "What if a guy gets an instrument focused on a star and just then his buddies in the docking adapter maneuver the vehicle around to look at the earth? Or what if a guy starts riding the bicycle ergometer, jiggling the space station, while another guy is taking a long film of the solar flare? Now, say that I gave the crew a rough framework of a schedule that said, for example, "Do five orbits of solar work followed by two orbits of earth resources pases over Africa.' They might get so superinterested in the sun that they didn't get ready in time for the earth resources passes and miss an important target on the ground! With so many constraints, I'd say they're bound to screw something up!"

The problem of distributing authority for the Skylab activities between the ground and the sky has classical overtones. We can analyze the situation using such concepts as autonomy, discretion, perceived control, self-determination, job enrichment, delegation, power, time span of discretion, or role conflict. To this already lengthy list I want to add the proposition that there are features of Skylab that the preceding concepts overlook, and these oversights require us to invent still another way of thinking--namely, the concept of a self-designing system (pp. 31-32). Reprinted, by permission of the publisher, from Karl E. Weick, Organizational design: Organizations as self-designing systems, Organizational Dynamics, 1977, vol. 6, copyright 1977 by AMACOM, a division of American Management Associations, New York. All Rights reserved.

635. Weick, Karl. Social psychology of organizing. (2nd ed.) Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1979. [N, Int, OrF, Mot]

Dear Karl. . . .

I had to acknowledge two points. One is that I am an unabashed fan of your book, and even a quasi-objective review was, therefore, out of my reach. The other point was that I had turned you into one of my mentors. Over the years I have been entranced over and over by your thinking, as well as stimulated to emulate it. No wonder that this "review" is tardy, unorthodox, and embarrassingly positive. . . .

Those who know your 1969 book and had difficulty understanding it, as I did, should know that this new edition (new book, really) is much easier to read and comprehend. Somehow it tickles and provotes, evokes our appreciation, shows by example the pleasure of theorizing, enhances each of us as an artist of everyday life, and so easily legitimizes the absurdity in all of us. . . . What was a set of ideas and reasoning pushing toward an alternative perspective has matured into a full-fledged paradigm in this edition. The prevailing paradigm in the social sciences . . . is a undirectional, causal one; you simply leap beyond this to a mutual, causal one. Your emphasis on linkages and process dynamics and on nonreification accounts in part for this as well as your artistic capacity to bite off more "reality" than organization scientists ordinarily do. That you make it all so palatable and even reasonable amazes me. You begin by hooking me with the 10 provocative events that illustrate organizing--i.e., processes for making sense of puzzling inputs so that interdependent sequences of actions emerge. . . .

In chapter two you offer six tactics for thinking about organizations. . . . Your tactic of evoking minitheories is [a] worthwhile habit for me. . . . That a theory of social behavior cannot simultaneously be general, accurate, and simple seems so obvious--now that you have stated it. . . .

Chapter three, devoted to the general notion of interdependence and causal structures with mutual causal loops, I found exciting in two quite different ways. One is that your exposition of cause maps and the importance of patterns of relations among variables forcefully introduces and argues in favor of what earlier was labeled a mutual causal paradigm. The other reason is that much of this intellectual discussion triggered off thoughts about my OD consulting. . . .

The theoretical "meat" of your book is contained in chapters four through eight. As I read them, you very carefully develop a series of ideas that defy a simple summary. . . . change and not stability is normal. The appearance of stability comes when actors "bracket" some set of events in their minds. This natural change is evolutionary and not necessarily toward order. The organization as a whole typically requires variety to maintain change, and variety comes from enactment. Successful rationalization determines what collective structures are selected and retained. The perceived level of equivocality will influence all of this. Environment becomes an output rather than an input. Doubt is important simply because failure is more likely to come from remembering too much too long. Tightly coupled systems tend to reduce doubt, variety, and evolutionary change. Now I am aware that these sentences hold some terms not yet in the mainstream of thought. They catch me because many of them appear to confound or go against "typical" thinking--and yet make so much sense.

Your final chapter presents a number of implications of your perspective and is particularly intriguing to my practitioner side. Again, many of these seemingly go against conventional ideas. Managers should think in circles given the multiple, mutual interactions and complex causal maps. That practitioners never do one thing all at once certainly fits my experience as both a manager and consultant. Paying attention to tempo also is good advice. The importance of goal-setting is questioned; you would substitute those decisions of what will be known about the organization. Nudging the system for incremental changes while visualizing it as an evolutionary system also fits my experience (some of my major failures as an OD consultant have been when I have pushed for a too orderly, large-scale change). Your phrase "persistent galumphing" strikes home, too; playful elaboration can produce realistic variety and a more realistic time frame. I whole heartedly agree that the climate of accountability most of us live in tends to drive out the novel, elevate the trivial, and dismiss the symbolic. -- C.C. Lundberg in Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1982, 18(1), 113-117. Quoted by permission of JAI Press.

636. Weisbord, Marvin. Organizational diagnosis: Six places to look for trouble with or without a theory. Group and Organizational Studies, 1974, 1(4), 430-447. [N, Ev, Int, OrF, OD]

This article presents a practical theory for diagnosing organizations--that is, a combination of many ideas in a relatively simple framework that can be applied in various settings. It brings together organization-environment, sociotechnical, and formal-informal systems concepts, and proposes six broad categories for looking at an organization: purposes, structure, relationships, rewards, leadership, and helpful mechanisms. The author illustrates how the six factors influence each other and provides clues about what to diagnose in each category, considering the infinite number of possibilities. He also suggests that what are called "process" issues show up as blocked work that can be freed by understanding and intervening in one or more of the six boxes. (author's abstract)

637. White, Donald D., and H. William Vroman. Action in Organizations. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1981. [N, Int]

Contains exercises.

638. White, Sam E., John E. Dittrich, and James R. Lang. The effects of group decision-making process and problem-situation complexity on implementation attempts. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1980, 25(3), 428-440. [N, Int, OrF]

The effects of group problem-solving method and problem-situation complexity on attempts at implementing group solutions were investigated in a laboratory-field setting. Group members were supervisory nurses from various organizations, who were randomly assigned to three groups in a balanced research design which included three group decision-making processes and three levels of problem-situation complexity in implementation. The dependent variable was the number of attempts at implementing group-derived solutions in home organizations. The results showed that structure in group decision-making processes led to increased rates of implementation attempts at all levels of problem-situation complexity. There was a significant complexity-by-process interaction effect among the decision-making processes, which supports the conclusion that the type of group decision-making process and the problem-situation complexity should be considered in order to optimize the number of implementation attempts. (authors' abstract)

639. Whitmore, Joanne Rand. The modification of undesirable attitudes and classroom behavior through constructive use of social power in the school peer culture. Technical Report No. 36, Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching (now Center for Educational Research at Stanford), 1973. ERIC Order No. ED 984 489. [S, Cl, Ef, Int, OrF, Mot]

On making use of the resources of students in the life of the school.

See also J.R. Whitmore. Student leadership: Guidelines for developing programs in distressed low-income elementary schools. Research and Development Memorandum No. 113, Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1973. ERIC Order No. ED 083 348.

See also J.R. Whitmore, J.L. Crist, and R.W. Marx. An experimental in-service teacher education program for distressed elementary schools. Research and Development Memorandum No. 117, Stanford Center for Research and Development in Teaching, 1974. ERIC Order No. ED 087 777. Describes factors limiting the effectiveness of the in-service program: (1) expectation of failure, (2) low personal and professional self-concepts, (3) pervasive sense of pressure and futility, (4) unskillful administrative leadership, (5) resistant teachers, (6) impatience, (7) lack of adequate use of the project staff, and (8) mental and emotional fatigue.

For other writings on powerlessness and other motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

640. Wiley, Davd E. and Annegret Harnischefeger. Explosion of a myth: Quantity of schooling and exposure to instruction, major educational vehicles. Educational Researcher, 1974, 3(4), 7-12. Reprinted under the title "Quantity of schooling is important" in A.J. Newman (Ed.), In defense of the American public school. Berkeley: McCutchan, 1978; pp. 104-115. [S, Ef]

Reports sketchily on a study comparing exposure to schooling (number of hours of instruction per year) with achievement scores; reports "tremendous effects"; namely, "we concluded that in schools where students receive 24 percent more schooling, they will increase their average gain in reading comprehension by two-thirds and their gains im mathematics and verbal skills by more than one-third" (p. 109). Also reviews earlier work on time on task.

641. Wilkes, Roberta. Peer and cross-age tutoring and related topics: An annotated bibliography. Theoretical Paper No. 53, Madison, WI:

Wisconsin Research and Development Center for Cognitive Learning, University of Wisconsin, 1975. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Bib]

This bibliography is an effort to provide educators and researchers with a comprehensive listing of current resources, information, and research concerning peer and cross-age academic tutoring by students, together with a selection of references on related topics of cross-age interactions, tutoring in general, and the use of paraprofessionals in educational and therapeutic situations. The references cited were selected from a search of educational and psychological literature from 1960 to 1973. . . . Listing also are several tutoring "packages" published commercially and available for purchase by school systems. (from the preface)

642. Williams, Patrick M. and Daniel Rose. Organization development and the educational voucher. In W.W. Burke (Ed.), Current issues and strategies in organization development. New York: Human Sciences Press, 1977; pp. 305-323. [S, Int, Env, OD]

Our prinicpal thesis is that through appropriate use of both organic and traditional consultation, the limitations of each are minimized. As a result, long-term systemwide change can create an organization better able to attract and make use of its own human resources. This integrative use of consultants allows the organization to become more responsive to both customers and owners.

A dual consulting effort, properly using each others' resources, can help the client define long-term objectives in anticipation of both their use (internal) and review (external). By avoiding the exclusive dependence upon one or the other kind of consultation, the client learns how each may be expected to produce synergistic products. Management's use of an independent study to forcase the limitations of a subunit's ability to change itself represents the external effort. Helping that unit to utilize the input of the study and encouraging the energy for change represents the internal. . . .

The change effort at Alum Rock offered a unique opportunity to examine in some detail this organic (internal) rationalized (external) approach to planned long-term organization change (at least five years). By reviewing the series of events and situations preceding and during the actual voucher experiment, we hope to share some of our own convictions, dilemmas, learnings, and questions regarding the appropriate use and future of dual consultation. In so doing, we will present the change strategy for achieving a power redistribution within the client system and its social, political, and economic motivation, goals, and consequences to date (pp. 305-306).

643. Williams, Richard C., Charles C. Wall, W. Michael Martin, and Arthur Berchin. Effecting organizational renewal in schools: A social systems perspective. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1974. [S, Int, OrF]

Authors selected eight schools from the League of Cooperative Schools of IDEA--the four scoring highest on "organizational renewal" and the four scoring lowest. For measurement purposes, they divided organizational renewal (OR) into three steps: dialogue, decision-making, and action. They tell nothing of the items composing the measures nor of how they were scored. Be that as it may, the authors found much greater proportions of role conflict in the low-OR schools than in the high-OR schools. They conclude, "This finding indicates that high role-personality conflict can indeed affect the degree of a school's success in attempting to develop dynamic processes. . . ." (p. 51). We might also interpret the finding as indicating that a school with dynamic processes characterizing the low-OR school gives staff many more opportunities to get into role conflicts and fewer opportunities to get out of them, compared to high-OR schools. The authors also report some discrepancies among the values of parents, teachers, and principals.

For other reports from IDEA, see Bentzen and associates (1974), Culver and Hoban (1973), Goodlad (1975, 1977), Seeman and Seeman (1976) and Tye and Novotney (1975).

644. Williamson, John N. The inquiring school: Toward a model of organizational self-renewal, Part I. Educational Forum, 1974, 38(3), 355-371. Part II, 1974, 38(4), 393-410. [S, Int, OrF, Env]

The ideas presented . . . imply a radical departure from present practice, primarily because they would have the school and other community resources emerge from their separate organizational shells to engage in the common social purpose of fostering self-renewing education for the community--the ultimate result of a school's functioning at the level of consciousness. (p. 409).

Presents an abstract model of an inquiring system on four interdependent levels: a level of operations and three higher-order "inquiry levels" of regulation, learning, and consciousness. Argues that the underlying contemporary needs of public education cannot be met merely through changing school practice. Rather they demand a strategy for transforming the schools into centers of inquiry and self-renewal.

645. Willower, Donald J. Barriers to change in educational organizations. Theory into Practice, 1963, 2(5), 257-263. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Mot]

The public school is viewed as a service organization having no control over client selection, and where clients have no choice regarding participation. In such organizations, concern with client control is central. Data from a study of a 1600-pupil junior high school support the proposition that resistance to liberalizing changes on the part of many teachers is a function of their preoccupation with pupil control. Older, more conservative teachers were dominant in the informal structure of the school studied, and norms stressed order, firmness, and social distance in teacher-student relationships. Pressures were applied to new teachers to conform to these norms. Changes which threatened the status structure--i.e., the domination of the older, more conservative teachers--were resisted. (*Sociological Abstracts*, 1965, 13(2), 295.

See also Donald J. Willower and Ronald G. Jones. When pupil control becomes an institutional theme. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1963, 45(2), 107-109.

See also D.J. Willower. Schools and pupil control. In D.A. Erickson (Ed.), *Educational organization and administration*. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1977; pp. 296-310.

For other writings on control of own fate and other motives, see the entries listed for "McClelland's (or similar) motives" at the end of the index.

646. Willower, Donald J. Educational change and functional equivalents. *Education and Urban Society*, 1970, 2, 385-402. [S, Cl, Ef, OrF, Mot]

Contends that the school displays an array of structures that are functional for the organization and its adult personnel but dysfunctional or neutral for pupils. Functional equivalents or alternatives are suggested after analysis of social structures, roles, and social norms. -- Culver and Hoban (1973, p. 267).

647. Willson, Victor L. and Richard R. Putman. A meta-analysis of pretest sensitization effects in experimental design. *American Educational Research Journal*, 1982, 19(2), 249-258. Copyright 1982, American Educational Research Association, Washington, D.C. [SN, Ev]

A meta-analysis of outcomes from 32 studies investigating pretest effects was conducted. All outcomes were computed as standardized differences between pretested and nonpretested groups. Eleven other variables were coded for each outcome. Initial descriptive statistics were indicative of differences between randomized and nonrandomized studies, so all further analyses were based on randomized group outcomes (n = 134). For all outcomes the average effect size was +.22, indicating the general elevating effect of pretest on posttest. Cognitive outcomes were raised .43, attitude outcomes, .29, personality .48, and others about .00 standard deviations. Sixty-four percent of all effects were positive, and 81 percent of the cognitive effects were positive. Duration of time between pre- and posttesting was related to effect size, with effect size generally being small for durations less than a day or over 1 month. Year of publication, sample size, presence of experimental treatment, and sameness or difference of pretest and posttest were not significantly related to effect size. Researchers must continue to include pretest as a design variable when it is present, and to estimate its effect. (authors' abstract)

648. Wolcott, Harry F. *The man in the principal's office: An ethnography*. New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1973. [S, Env, Lea]

The reader who understands what Ed Bell, the principal in this school, does from hour to hour and day to day as he moves about the school and in the community will understand how the principal acts in thousands of elementary schools in the United States. [It] is clear that the principal's role is that of mediator rather than innovator or commander. Much of his time and energy is devoted to conflict resolution or the prevention of conflicts latent in the system of interrelationships. It is also clear that wth this emphasis on the mediator's role, it is impossible for the principal to attend in any depth to the educational process itself. . . . In the American community, schools and their administrators abide in a climate of unstable equilibrium. The study also deals with perceptions by various individuals and audiences of the principal's behavior, as well as his own self-perception. We can see that these perceptions are, to a large extent, a projection of the variant positions within the system of interrelationships within which the principal plays his mediating role. Also notable in this case study is the attention given to the disposition of the principal's time. . . . What impresses anyone who has worked in schools in other societies is the enormous amount of time devoted to meetings of various sorts on the part of our own professional educators (G. and L. Spindler in the foreword).

See also H.F. Wolcott. The elementary school principal: Notes from a field study. In D.A. Erickson (Ed.), Educational organization and administration. Berkeley, CA: McCutchan, 1977, pp 512-541.

649. Wolcott, Harry F. Teachers versus technocrats: An educational innovation in anthropological perspective. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1977. [S, Int, OrF]

. . . this report contains valuable lessons that should be heeded by those who would set out to bring about major changes in schools. . . . [For] years I have exhorted students to anticipate both the unintended and intended consequences of their decisions and plans. The very existence of this report attests to the importance of paying attention to unplanned events. . . .

When they first entered South Lane, project staff members met with teachers, administrators, and board members. They thought they were testing a system that would be of benefit to all of those. They believed that personnel at all levels in the school district were interested in giving SPECS a try. As time went on, and in the absence of direct reports to the contrary, they assumed that teachers were at least comfortable with what was happening. They had no intention of victimizing anyone, and they did not believe that anyone was being victimized.

But Harry's report tells us that they were wrong. Some teachers did feel that they had been victimized, and to them it probably made little difference that it was unintentional. Others resented the fact that CASEA had failed to respond to their appeals for relief. But we did not hear their appeals--at least not soon enough. We had to learn what we should have known: if you want to find out what people are thinking, ask them. . . .

Certainly school people can benefit from outside help, as can people in other types of organizations. But they will benefit only if they receive help in doing what they think needs to be done, in doing what they believe in doing. They need to be partners in a venture. . . .

There is another message in Harry's report that is more implicit than explicit--that is muted--but important nonetheless. It has to do with fortuitous circumstances, with unplanned events, with unintended consequences, with serendipity. In other words it has to do with much of what reasearch is all about. . . . -- from the forward by M.G. Abbott.

650. Wolcott, Harry F. Is there life after technology?: Some lessons on change. Educational Technology, 1981, 21(5), 24-28. [S, Int, OrF]

The author offers six propositions on change:

> People resist changes that appear to threaten basic securities.
>
> People resist proposed changes they do not understand.
>
> People resist being forced to change.
>
> People do not vary their customary behavior unless they feel some need which existing ways do not satisfy; such needs cannot be established by fiat.
>
> Resistance to programs of improvement may be centered not on innovations but on the way in which new programs are administered. Under such circumstances, people's energies may be channeled into opposition to the innovators, while the innovations themselves become symbols of that opposition.
>
> Almost all changes proposed as a result of the extensive knowledge of science and technology originate in one subculture and, to be accepted, must be made intelligible and given value in terms of another subculture (p. 25).

After describing three case studies, the author concludes:

> Anthropological lessons on change are neither particularly new nor particularly earth-shattering. Yet a thoughtful consideration of so abbreviated and simple a set of propositions about change as the six I paraphrased at the beginning of this article ought to alert overly enthusiastic developers of educational technologies to the give-and-take of the implementation process. Technologists are advised to pay close heed to the problems and contexts of those for whom their innovations

are intended. Regardless of how advanced our technologies become, the meanings attributed to them can only be supplied by humans. (p. 28).

See also Wolcott (1977).

651. Woock, Roger R. Desegregating American schools: Three steps forward, two steps back. Special issue of Education and Urban Society, 1977, 9(3). [S, Env]

Contains articles on busing, court rulings, federal and state roles, multiracial schools, teacher training, implementing desgregation plans, and social perspectives on policy.

652. Woodman, Richard W. and John J. Sherwood. The role of team development in organizational effectiveness: A critical review. Psychological Bulletin, 1980, 88(1), 166-186. [SN, Int, Tea, OD]

The technology of team development is described. A distinction is drawn between team development and T-group or sensitivity training. The empirical literature on team development is reviewed, with greater attention paid to those studies that used stronger research designs. Although there is general support for the finding that team building elicits positive affective responses from participants, the linkage between team building and improved worked group performance remains largely unsubstantiated. (authors' abstract)

653. Wyant, Spencer H. Power to the pupil: An annotated bibliography of student involvement, student power, and student participation in decision-making in public secondary schools. Occasional Paper, Center for Educational Policy and Mnaagement, Eugene, OR, 1973. ERIC Order No. ED 089 462. [S, Bib]

654. Wyant, Spencer H. The effects of organization development training on communication in elementary schools. Doctoral dissertation, University of Oregon, 1974. [S, Int, OrF, OD]

The study focused on two types of schools: those that had received organization development training--here called "trained"--and those with team-teaching or multiunit organizational structures--here called "collaborative." It was predicted that schools that were both trained and collaborative would score highest on criterion tests of communication, that schools untrained but collaborative and schools trained but not collaborative would score next highest, and that schools both untrained and not collaborative would score lowest.

Collaborative organizational structure had positive effects on communication, but the effects were weaker in 1972 than in 1970. The pooled mean standardized scores of untrained collaborative schools exceeded the mean of untrained non-collaborative schools on all tests in 1970 and on five of six tests in 1972. The highest mean score among untrained collaborative schools in 1972, however, was lower than the lowest mean score of that group in 1970.

Analysis showed that small amounts of training have deleterious effects on communication, while larger amounts of training facilitate communication. When the pooled mean standardized scores of collaborative schools receiving different amounts of training were plotted against the mean score of untrained collaborative schools, it was found that training had a consistently positive effect on communication, but only after the amount of training exceeded a point lying between 22 and 27 hours. It appeared that small amounts of training merely made public the organizational problems that exist in all schools, but did not give the staffs sufficient time to deal with the problems constructively.

One overall conclusion was that organization development training does have a positive effect on communication, provided that sufficient training is received. Another was that organizational structure also influences communication, but that the effect is likely to diminish (in contrast to the effects of training) over time. (author's abstract)

655. Wyant, Spencer H. with Diane L. Reinhard and Richard I. Arends. Of principals and projects. Reston, VA: Association of Teacher Educators, 1980. [S, Int, OrF, Lea]

Over the past two decades, many special projects funded by federal agencies or other sources external to the school have been tried, and the principal has been expected to provide leadership in implementing them. Yet many principals feel ill prepared to lead the process of change and innovation. . . .

We believe it is helpful . . . to know how to better prepare principals to lead those projects and spend their money wisely. Surely staff development specialists and others who provide inservice education for administrators can benefit from knowledge of the behaviors of principals that most directly influence the course of a project and how to help principals develop leadership skills and facilitating behaviors. Theorists and others who observe schools and try to understand them would probably welcome empirical findings about the effects of the principal's behavior. Finally, we believe that principals themselves can benefit from experienced-based suggestions that help them exert more effective instructional leadership in their schools.

The impetus for this book, then, comes from our desire to learn and communicate to others more effective ways of providing inservice training that helps principals with the crucial tasks of their job (pp. ix-xi).

656. Yin, Robert K., Karen A. Heald, Mary E. Vogel, Patricia D. Fleischauer, and Bruce C. Vladeck. A review of case studies of technological innovations in state and local services. Santa Monica, CA: Rand Corp., 1976 (R-1870-NSF). [SN, Int, Lin]

To be effective, consultants or linking agents should involve local people in planning and monitoring, provide in-service training, and include and explicit phase of institutionalization.

657. Zammuto, Raymond F. Assessing organizational effectiveness: Systems change, adaptation, and strategy. Albany: State University of New York Press, 1982. Available from Publications Department, National Center for Higher Education Management Systems, P.O. Drawer P, Boulder, CO. 80302. [N, Ev, OrF]

This book casts the concept of organizational effectiveness within the framework of societal evolution. Unlike other approaches, the evolutionary model considers the effects and interactions of preferences, environmental constraints, and time on organizational performance. It suggests that organizations which satisfy changing preferences over time through "niche expanding" performance are effective for two reasons. -- Publisher's blurb.

658. Zand, Dale E. Collateral organizations: A new change strategy. Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 1974, 10(1), 63-89. [N, Int, OrF]

The claim that managerial flexibility is essential makes more sense to managers and is more relevant to organizational development than the claim that traditional forms of organization should (or will) be displaced by more humanistic, participative forms. Managers can readily understand that finding solutions to different problems calls for different modes of organization. This article outlines a new change strategy--a collateral organization; i.e., a parallel, continuously coexisting organization which a manager can use to supplement his or her existing formal organization. Collateral organizations have norms differing from those usually in force, are used to identify and solve apparently intractable problems, and are carefully linked to the "regular" organization. No new people are required. (author's abstract, quoted by permission of JAI Press)

659. Zeigler, Harmon. The political world of the high school teacher. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1966. ERIC order number ED 014 789. Available in photocopy from the Center. [S, OrF, Env]

This book . . . describes the behavior of high school teachers [and] present[s] some generalizations about political behavior using teachers as examples. . . . it is obvious that some of the acts of the educational system have implications for the political process. The most obvious is political socialization (p. xi).

660. Zeigler, L. Harmon, M. Kent Jennings, and G. Wayne Peak. Governing American schools: Political interaction in local school districts. North Scituate, MA: Duxbury, 1974. [S, Env, Lea]

. . . an important contribution that goes a long way toward clarification of questions raised in earlier studies. The three central themes of the book--how board members are selected, the representativeness of school boards vis a vis community preferences, and the dynamics of school board-superintendent relations--are certainly not new to us. But the thoroughness of Zeigler and Jennings' approach is. After a review of their broad based survey, one comes away with the inescapable conclusion that school boards fall significantly short of the purposes for which they were established. They usually are not representative of their communities, nor do they act as agents of their electorate. Further, they are frequently impotent as governing bodies, leaving much of their policy making prerogatives to the discretion of their chief executive officers.

This book reports the findings of a *nationwide* sample (82 school boards, with another 6 added for analysis purposes). . . .

Zeigler and Jennings document the fact that school boards spend most of their time on routine functions, leaving much of the policy initiative to their chief executive officers. This tends to dampen board members' interest in maintaining contact with elements of the community that seem to be shifting, almost overnight, in membership, purpose and strategy. . . . Reprinted from an essay review by Mike M. Milstein appearing in *Educational Administration Quarterly*, vol. 11, no. 3 (Autumn 1975), pp. 124-128, copyright 1975 by the University Council for Educational Administration, with permission of Sage Publications, Inc.

661. Zeigler, L. Harmon, Harvey J. Tucker, and L.A. Wilson. How school control was wrested from the people. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 1977, 58(7), 534-539. [S, Env, Lea, Lin]

Perhaps "wrested" is not the word. Filched? Stolen? In any case, this article is must reading for anyone who seeks to understand the events that have brought us from full control by lay boards broadly representative of local communities to present-day governance dominanted by professionals, courts, and distant governental bodies. --Editor's introduction.

662. Zeigler, L. Harmon, Ellen Kehoe, Jane Reisman, and John Polito. Conflict management in educational and municipal governance. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1981. (mimeo) [SN, OrF, Env, Lea]

Conflict has been managed when the parties to the dispute abandon or at least suspend active blocking behavior. The management of conflict is the conversion of conflict from an active to a passive state.

Successful management institutionalizes conflict.

Management of intraorganizational conflict involves a different set of activities than does the management of broader social and political conflict. In intraorganizational conflict, the issues are not likely to have a strong ideological component and the expertise of the parties is accepted. In expanded public conflicts, the parties are likely to attach strongly held ideologies to their goals and to be unwilling to acknowledge the legitimacy of expertise. Symbol manipulation, for example, is more appropriate for handling these conflicts than for intraorganizational conflicts.

Social conflict is not managed by avoidance; on the contrary, avoidance leads to expansion and wider public participation and, consequently, to a more complex management problem.

The management behavior associated with the public conflicts we are interested in is directed toward controlling the expansion of conflict (p. 13).

Contrasts management of conflict by school superintendents and city managers.

See also L.H. Zeigler, E. Kehoe, J. Reisman, and J. Polito. Re-examining the beleagured superintendent question. Eugene, OR: Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1981. (mimeo)

INDEX

In the lists starting on the next page, the numbers are entry numbers, not page numbers. The symbols have the following meanings:

Cl	Classroom dynamics.	Lea	Leadership, management, administration.
Ef	Effects of schooling, learning.	Mot	Motivation, satisfaction.
Ev	Evaluating and diagnosing. How to do it, not reports of evaluations.	Lin	Linking among schools, schools with other organizations or parts of their environment, research with practice, networks. Includes cadres of organizational specialists.
Int	Intervention and change, innovating.	Tea	Teams.
OrF	Organizational functioning.	OD	Organizational development.
Env	Environment of schools: community, state, society, economy, polity. Includes desegegation and racial relations.	Bib	Bibliographies.

To find entries dealing with organizational functioning, for example, go down the column containing "OrF." The index tells you to look at the entries numbered 1, 7, 8, 9 and so on.

At the end of the main section are listings for still further topics. Following those "Other Topics" is a listing of second and further authors. First authors, of course, appear alphabetically in the body of the bibliography.

S: Entries dealing with schools.

1					OrF							
4	Cl			Int								
7				Int	OrF						OD	
8	Cl				OrF							
9					OrF							
11	Cl	Ef		Int								
12		Ef		Int								
13				Int	OrF	Env					OD	
14	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF			Mot		Tea		
16			Ev									
17				Int	OrF						OD	
18	Cl	Ef			OrF							
19				Int	OrF							
20				Int	OrF							
21				Int					Lin		OD	
22	Cl	Ef									OD	
26												Bib
27	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF			Mot				
28									Lin			
29		Ef		Int								
30					OrF				Lin			
32				Int								
34					OrF							
36				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	
41				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	
42				Int	OrF	Env						
43				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	
44			Ev	Int							OD	
47				Int	OrF							
48		Ef			OrF	Env	Lea		Lin			
50	Annotated under entry No. 551.											
52				Int	OrF				Lin			
53				Int					Lin			
54		Ef										
55		Ef			OrF							
56	Cl	Ef		Int	Orf						OD	
57	Cl			Int								
59							Lea			Tea	OD	
60	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF	Env		Mot				
61	Cl											
62					OrF		Lea					
63					OrF					Tea		
64						Env			Lin			
65			Ev									
70	Cl	Ef			OrF	Env		Mot				
71	Cl	Ef			OrF	Env		Mot				
72		Ef			OrF	Env	Lea					
73				Int	OrF		Lea				OD	
77					OrF					Tea		
78					OrF	Env						
80						Env						
81					OrF							

82	Cl	Ef						Mot				
83				Int	OrF							
84					OrF							
86			Ev									Bib
90				Int	OrF		Lea					
91				Int	OrF		Lea		Lin		OD	
92				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	
93				Int	OrF				Lin			
94				Int	OrF						OD	
96	Cl	Ef										
101				Int	OrF	Env						
102				Int	OrF							
103					OrF		Lea					
104					OrF	Env	Lea					
105						Env						
106	Cl	Ef										
107				Int	OrF							
108				Int	OrF							
109	Cl	Ef		Int								
110					OrF			Mot				
111					OrF							
112					OrF					Tea		
113					OrF							
114			Ev									
115				Int	OrF							
117				Int	OrF							
118				Int	OrF	Env						
119				Int	OrF		Lea					
120				Int	OrF	Env						
123	Cl			Int	OrF							
124					OrF							
125					OrF	Env		Mot				
126				Int	OrF						OD	
128				Int	OrF				Lin	Tea	OD	
129				Int	OrF						OD	
130					OrF					Tea		
131	Cl				OrF					Tea		
132	Cl	Ef										
135		Ef				Env						
136		Ef			OrF	Env						
137				Int	OrF						OD	
138				Int	OrF						OD	
139				Int	OrF						OD	
140					OrF							
142				Int	OrF							
143							Lea					
144	Cl				OrF							
145	Cl	Ef				Env						
146					OrF							
149	Cl	Ef						Mot				
150				Int	OrF						OD	
155				Int	OrF	Env	Lea					Bib
158				Int	OrF	Env					OD	
160				Int	OrF							
162												Bib

163						Env						
170				Int	OrF	Env					OD	
171	Cl			Int								
172				Int	OrF							
173	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF	Env						
174				Int	OrF							
175					OrF							
176	Cl	Ef		Int				Mot				
180				Int	OrF						OD	
181				Int	OrF							
184				Int	OrF		Lea				OD	
185				Int	OrF	Env					OD	
188	Cl	Ef			OrF							
189	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF	Env		Mot				
190				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	
191				Int	OrF						OD	
193	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF				Lin			
194				Int	OrF							
195		Ef										
197				Int	OrF						OD	
198					OrF	Env						
199				Int	OrF							
200				Int	OrF						OD	
205				Int	OrF						OD	
206				Int					Lin			
207					OrF							
208	Cl	Ef			OrF	Env						
209												Bib
210		Ef			OrF							
211				Int	OrF						OD	
212				Int					Lin			
213		Ef			OrF							
214						Env			Lin			
215				Int	OrF						OD	
221				Int	OrF		Lea				OD	
222					OrF		Lea				OD	
223	Annotated under entry No. 551.											
228				Int	OrF						OD	
229	Cl	Ef	Ev					Mot				
230	Cl		Ev		OrF						OD	
231			Ev	Int	OrF							
232				Int	OrF						OD	
238	Annotated under entry No. 551.											
244	Cl			Int	OrF				Lin			
245				Int	OrF						OD	
246	Cl			Int								
248				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	
249	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF		Lea					
250						Env						
253	Cl	Ef			OrF							
256	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF							
257	Cl				OrF							
258				Int						Tea	OD	
259	Cl				OrF							
262						Env						

263	Cl			Int	OrF				Lin			
264				Int	OrF							
265					OrF		Lea					
266	Cl			Int	OrF							
267				Int	OrF						OD	
269	Cl											
271					OrF		Lea			Tea		
272				Int	OrF		Lea					
274			Ev									
277					OrF							
278			Ev									
280					OrF							
281					OrF							
282		Ef		Int								
289	Cl	Ef		Int							OD	
291				Int	OrF						OD	
292				Int					Lin			
294				Int								Bib
296				Int	OrF							
297		Ef										
299					OrF			Mot				
300				Int		Env			Lin			
302				Int							OD	
303					OrF	Env						
305				Int	OrF						OD	
307		Ef										
311			Ev									
312				Int	OrF	Env						
316				Int	OrF							
317				Int	OrF							
318				Int	OrF							
321		Ef										
322	Cl				OrF							
327	Cl	Ef			OrF							
328				Int	OrF					Tea	OD	Bib
330		Ef				Env						
331	Cl	Ef			OrF							
332	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF			Mot				
333	Cl	Ef		Int								
336	Cl	Ef			OrF							
337	Cl	Ef			OrF			Mot				
338				Int	OrF							
339					OrF							Bib
345				Int	OrF							
34[illegible]		Ef			OrF							
347	Cl	Ef			OrF	Env						
348	Cl			Int	OrF						OD	
349	Cl			Int	OrF					Tea	OD	
352					OrF							
361												Bib
362					OrF							
363				Int	OrF						OD	
369	Cl			Int	OrF						OD	
370				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	
371				Int	OrF							

373				Int	OrF		Lea	Mot			
374				Int				Mot	Lin		
377						Env					
378				Int							
379					OrF		Lea				
380	Cl							Mot			
381					OrF	Env			Lin		
382					OrF						
384	Annotated under entry No. 551.										
385				Int	OrF						
386									Lin		
389				Int					Lin	OD	
390				Int					Lin	OD	
391		Ef						Mot			
392				Int							Bib
397	Cl	Ef		Int		Env			Lin		
398				Int	OrF					OD	
399				Int	OrF						
401				Int	OrF	Env	Lea				
402				Int	OrF						
403				Int	OrF					OD	
406						Env			Lin		
407	Cl					Env					Bib
409	Annotated under entry No. 551.										
410	Cl				OrF						
411	Cl	Ef									
412							Lea				
414	Annotated under entry No. 551.										
416	Annotated under entry No. 551.										
417	Cl	Ef			OrF	Env					
418				Int	OrF					OD	
421					OrF						
422				Int	OrF	Env			Lin		
423	Cl								Lin		
424									Lin		
425	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF	Env			Lin	OD	
428					OrF						
429					OrF						
430					OrF						
431				Int							
432				Int	OrF						
433									Lin	OD	
438				Int	OrF	Env			Lin	OD	
439		Ef		Int	OrF						
440				Int	OrF	Env					
441										OD	
443				Int	OrF			Mot		OD	
444		Ef			OrF						
447				Int	OrF						
451		Ef			OrF						
452				Int	OrF					OD	
456	Cl			Int	OrF					OD	
457	Cl	Ef		Int					Lin		
458				Int	OrF					OD	
459	Cl		Ev								

461					OrF							
463				Int	OrF		Lea	Mot				
464				Int	OrF							
465				Int					Lin			
471				Int	OrF							
475				Int	OrF						OD	
479				Int	OrF	Env			Lin		OD	
480									Lin			
481				Int					Lin			
482				Int					Lin			
485				Int	OrF						OD	
488				Int	OrF				Lin	Tea	OD	
490							Lea					Bib
491				Int		Env			Lin			
495				Int	OrF						OD	
497	Cl	Ef			OrF							
498						Env			Lin			
500					OrF							
502				Int	OrF						OD	
503			Ev	Int								
504				Int	OrF							
505				Int		Env						
506				Int	OrF						OD	
507				Int	OrF						OD	
508				Int	OrF						OD	
509				Int	OrF	Env		Mot				
510				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	
511					OrF							
512				Int	OrF	Env						
513					OrF					Tea		
514	Cl	Ef			OrF	Env						
518				Int	OrF		Lea	Mot				
521				Int	OrF						OD	
522				Int	OrF						OD	
524				Int	OrF						OD	
525		Ef			OrF		Lea					
526				Int	OrF							
527	Cl			Int								
528					OrF		Lea				OD	
529	Cl			Int								
530	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF	Env					OD	
531					OrF					Tea		
532				Int	OrF							
533	Cl			Int							OD	
534	Cl	Ef		Int				Mot				
535				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	
536	Cl	Ef			OrF							
537	Cl	Ef			OrF			Mot				
538				Int	OrF						OD	
539		Ef			OrF			Mot				
540	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF						OD	
541				Int	OrF						OD	
542	Cl				OrF							
543					OrF							
544				Int	OrF				Lin		OD	

545				Int	OrF				Lin		OD
546				Int	OrF						OD
547				Int	OrF						OD
548							Lea			Tea	
549				Int	OrF						OD
550				Int	OrF				Lin		OD
551	Cl	Ef			OrF			Mot			
552	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF			Mot			
553	Cl	Ef						Mot			
554	Cl	Ef	Ev	Int	OrF		Lea	Mot			
555				Int							OD
556				Int	OrF						OD
557				Int	OrF						OD
558				Int	OrF					Tea	OD
560						Env					
561					OrF		Lea				
562					OrF						
563				Int	OrF	Env					
564				Int	OrF					Tea	OD
565			Ev			Env					
567	Cl	Ef			OrF						
569				Int	OrF				Lin		
570	Cl	Ef			OrF			Mot			
572					OrF	Env		Mot			
573				Int					Lin		
574				Int					Lin		
575				Int					Lin		
576			Ev	Int	OrF						
577					OrF	Env					
578	Cl	Ef			OrF						
579				Int	OrF						OD
580				Int	OrF		Lea				OD
581									Lin		
582	Cl	Ef			OrF						
583	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF	Env		Mot		Tea	
584	Cl	Ef			OrF			Mot			
585		Ef			OrF			Mot			
586				Int	OrF		Lea				
587				Int	OrF						OD
589				Int	OrF		Lea			Tea	
591	Cl	Ef		Int							
592	Cl	Ef			OrF						
594				Int	OrF						OD
596		Ef				Env					
597				Int	OrF						OD
600	Cl	Ef				Env		Mot			
601	Cl			Int	OrF						
602	Cl	Ef						Mot			
604	Cl	Ef			OrF	Env		Mot			
606		Ef			OrF			Mot			
607				Int	OrF		Lea				OD
608	Cl										
609								Mot			
610	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF			Mot			
611				Int	OrF	Env	Lea				OD

616						Env						
619	Cl			Int								
620				Int	OrF							
623		Ef				Env			Lin			
626				Int	OrF							
627		Ef			OrF							
628	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF							
631				Int	OrF						OD	
632				Int							OD	
633					OrF							
639	Cl	Ef		Int	OrF			Mot				
640		Ef										
641	Cl	Ef			OrF							Bib
642				Int		Env					OD	
643				Int	OrF							
644				Int	OrF	Env						
645	Cl	Ef			OrF			Mot				
646	Cl	Ef			OrF			Mot				
648						Env	Lea					
649				Int	OrF							
650				Int	OrF							
651						Env						
653												Bib
654				Int	OrF						OD	
655				Int	OrF		Lea					
659					OrF	Env						
660						Env	Lea					
661						Env	Lea		Lin			

SN: Entries dealing with both schools and non-schools. The latter include human services, government, industry, military, church, etc.

24					OrF		Lea					
31				Int	OrF							
33								Mot				
46					OrF	Env						
74					OrF							Bib
79				Int	OrF			Mot				
134				Int	OrF	Env						
141				Int	OrF	Env						
151			Ev									
152			Ev									
177					OrF			Mot				
179										Tea	OD	
182				Int	OrF							
183				Int	OrF							
202				Int		Env						
204					OrF						OD	
219				Int	OrF							
224			Ev									
225								Mot				
226				Int							OD	
234				Int	OrF						OD	Bib
237								Mot				

242				Int	OrF						OD	
255			Ev	Int								
260					OrF							
268			Ev									
287				Int				Mot			OD	
293				Int	OrF				Lin			
295				Int					Lin			Bib
306					OrF	Env						
310				Int								
313			Ev									
314			Ev			Env						
319				Int					Lin			
326			Ev									
334				Int								
335				Int							OD	
340					OrF			Mot				
341				Int							OD	
357				Int	OrF	Env	Lea	Mot			OD	
359					OrF	Env	Lea					
360					OrF			Mot				
365					OrF		Lea					
372				Int							OD	
375			Ev		OrF		Lea	Mot				
376					OrF							
405											OD	
415		Ef		Int				Mot				
434				Int						Tea		
442				Int	OrF						OD	
445				Int							OD	
450				Int								
453				Int	OrF						OD	Bib
454					OrF							
455				Int					Lin			Bib
468											OD	
474			Ev	Int	OrF	Env	Lea	Mot	Lin	Tea	OD	Bib
487			Ev									
492			Ev	Int								
496				Int					Lin			Bib
499				Int					Lin			
517				Int		Env						
519				Int		Env			Lin			
520				Int		Env			Lin			
590	Cl	Ef		Int				Mot				
605			Ev									
613				Int	OrF							
647			Ev									
652				Int						Tea	OD	
656				Int					Lin			
662					OrF	Env	Lea					

N: Entries dealing with non-schools. Also entries relevant to any kind of organization. We sometimes found it difficult to decide whether to code an entry under "N" or under "SN." if you don't find what you are looking for under the one, you might try the other.

2		Int	OrF			Mot			
3		Int	OrF						
5						Mot			
6		Int	OrF				Lin		OD
10		Int		Env					
15		Int	OrF						OD
23			OrF			Mot			
25		Int	OrF					Tea	OD
35	Ev	Int							
37		Int	OrF						OD
38		Int	OrF						
39		Int	OrF						OD
40		Int	OrF	Env					
45						Mot			
49					Lea				OD
51		Int				Mot			
58			OrF		Lea				
66		Int	OrF						OD
67			OrF	Env					
68		Int	OrF	Env		Mot			
69		Int	OrF						OD
75		Int	OrF			Mot			
76			OrF			Mot			
85			OrF	Env					
87		Int							OD
88		Int	OrF						OD
89		Int	OrF						OD
95			OrF						
97		Int	OrF						
98		Int							
99							Lin		
100		Int	OrF						
116		Int	OrF						
121		Int	OrF	Env					
122			OrF	Env					
127		Int	OrF						
133		Int							
147		Int	OrF						
148			OrF						
153		Int	OrF			Mot			
154			OrF			Mot			
156			OrF			Mot			
157		Int	OrF			Mot			
159			OrF	Env					
161	Annotated under entry No. 449.								
164		Int	OrF			Mot			
165	Ev	Int	OrF			Mot			
166		Int	OrF						
167		Int	OrF	Env					

168			OrF						
169		Int	OrF	Env					OD
178			OrF						OD
186			OrF						
187		Int	OrF						
192			OrF						
196			OrF						
201								Tea	
203				Env					
216	Ev			Env					
217		Int	OrF						
218		Int							
220			OrF						
227		Int							OD
233		Int	OrF			Mot			
235		Int	OrF						
236		Int		Env			Lin		
239		Int	OrF						OD
240			OrF						
241				Env		Mot			
243			OrF			Mot			
247		Int	OrF						
251		Int	OrF						
252		Int		Env			Lin		
254			OrF						
261		Int				Mot			
270		Int	OrF			Mot			
273		Int							
275					Lea	Mot			
276			OrF						OD
279		Int					Lin		
283						Mot			
284		Int							
285		Int	OrF						OD
286			OrF		Lea	Mot			
288		Int							OD
290			OrF			Mot			
298		Int	OrF						
301		Int	OrF						OD
304			OrF			Mot			
308			OrF						
309		Int	OrF	Env					
315						Mot			
320		Int	OrF						OD
323	Ev		OrF						
324		Int		Env					
325			OrF						
329			OrF	Env					
342			OrF	Env			Lin		
343		Int	OrF	Env	Lea	Mot			
344	Ev					Mot			
350	Ev		OrF			Mot			
351	Ev					Mot			
353						Mot	Lin		
354		Int							

355		Int	OrF						
356			OrF			Mot			
358	Ev	Int	OrF					OD	
364			OrF	Env					
366		Int	OrF						
367	Ev								
368		Int	OrF	Env				OD	
383			OrF			Mot			
387			OrF						
388								OD	
393		Int							
394		Int	OrF						
395		Int	OrF				Tea		
396		Int	OrF						
400		Int	OrF	Env					
404								OD	
408	Ev		OrF			Mot			
413			OrF						
419		Int	OrF						
420			OrF		Lea	Mot			
426			OrF			Mot			
427		Int					Tea		
435		Int	OrF			Mot			
436			OrF	Env					
437			OrF						
446		Int							
448	Ev							OD	
449				Env				OD	
460	Ev	Int						OD	
462	Ev					Mot			
466		Int	OrF					OD	
467		Int	OrF					OD	
469		Int	OrF					OD	Bib
470		Int	OrF					OD	
472			OrF						
473		Int	OrF	Env		Mot			
476		Int	OrF		Lea				
477		Int							
478		Int							
483			OrF						
484	Ev								
486								OD	
489			OrF			Mot			
493	Ev							OD	
494			OrF						
501			OrF						
515	Ev		OrF			Mot			
516	Ev		OrF			Mot			
523						Mot			
559	Ev					Mot			
566		Int	OrF						
568						Mot			
571		Int				Mot			
588						Mot			
593		Int	OrF			Mot			

595		Int		Env		Mot	Lin		
598			OrF	Env					
599		Int	OrF			Mot			
603			OrF						
612	Ev			Env					
614			OrF	Env					
615		Int	OrF	Env				Tea	OD
617			OrF						
618			OrF					Tea	
621		Int	OrF				Lin		
622	Ev								
624		Int							
625			OrF		Lea				
629									OD
630	Ev					Mot			
634			OrF			Mot			
635		Int	OrF			Mot			
636	Ev	Int	OrF						OD
637		Int							
638		Int	OrF						
657	Ev		OrF						
658		Int	OrF						

Other Topics

Alternative and experimental schools: 107, 108, 173, 174, 193, 198, 331, 345, 410, 461, 518, 585, 604, 610, 611.

Cadres of organizational specialists: 6, 21, 41, 43, 94, 190, 390, 438, 479, 505, 510, 535, 541, 544, 545, 550, 557.

Citizens' involvement with schools: 13, 28, 64, 72, 80, 145, 162, 163, 173, 198, 262, 306, 377, 379, 397, 417, 479, 491, 530, 560, 562, 604, 616, 642, 660.

Conflict: 10, 11, 12, 59, 68, 118, 133, 140, 174, 175, 181, 182, 183, 184, 196, 204, 217, 243, 265, 332, 359, 360, 375, 376, 401, 440, 463, 474, 483, 554, 557, 561, 564, 571, 589, 611, 634, 643, 648, 662.

Cooperation and competition: 14, 27, 149, 188, 189, 335, 336, 337, 360, 551, 570, 571, 582, 583, 584.

Exercises: 4, 22, 50, 96, 218, 226, 227, 273, 288, 310, 333, 334, 335, 354, 355, 366, 393, 427, 434, 445, 446, 454, 474, 477, 478, 482, 491, 557, 624, 632, 637.

General systems: 67, 85, 364, 436, 603.

Goal-setting: 133, 134, 154, 156, 178, 359, 383, 395, 399, 400, 401, 413, 473, 474, 476, 499, 557, 634, 635.

Hawthorne studies: 2, 75, 100 233, 593.

Herzberg's factors, criticisms of: 315, 351, 559, 630.

Higher education: 59, 73, 139, 259, 345, 401, 403, 475, 628, 633, 657.

Human resources accounting: 148, 220, 463.

Loose coupling: 134, 249, 254, 260, 281, 359, 400, 401, 428, 429, 430, 473, 633, 635.

Macrodesigning and microdesigning (guides for the consultant or designer; does not include writings that are primarily reports on change projects, compilations of exercises, or discussions of "problems in"; excludes writings on cadres): S: 19, 20, 27, 42, 44, 52, 53, 57, 59, 117, 118, 120, 128, 142, 155, 156, 160, 173, 174, 181, 184, 190, 206, 230, 249, 256, 263, 272, 291, 312, 332, 370, 374, 397, 422, 431, 439, 482, 488, 491, 509, 512, 518, 522, 528, 532, 533, 538, 540, 552, 555, 557, 564, 573, 574, 589, 610, 620, 631, 632, 644, 655. SN: 31, 182, 183, 202, 219, 287, 293, 334, 335, 357, 434, 442, 499. N: 10, 15, 25, 35, 38, 39, 88, 97, 116, 164 165, 166, 169, 187, 217, 218, 227, 239, 247, 270, 284, 285, 298, 320, 354, 355, 358, 366, 368, 427, 446, 467, 476, 476, 615, 621, 624, 636, 637.

McClelland's (or similar) motives: 5, 23, 33, 45, 49, 50, 51, 68, 82, 136, 153, 176, 177, 225, 237, 243, 252, 275, 286, 304, 305, 327, 356, 357, 375, 380, 408, 414, 415, 416, 420, 426, 474, 509, 523, 551, 568, 578, 585, 599, 602, 639, 645.

OD in schools, research on: 7, 13, 36, 41, 56, 91, 92, 94, 126, 129, 137, 138, 139, 150, 170, 180, 181, 191, 197, 200, 205, 215, 221, 222, 228, 232, 245, 248, 267, 289, 328, 348, 349, 352, 363, 369, 390, 398, 418, 425, 438, 443, 452, 456, 479, 485, 488, 495, 502, 506, 507, 510, 521, 522, 524, 530, 549, 556, 558, 580, 587, 594, 597, 611, 654.

Philosophy of science: 216, 517, 565.

Satisfaction at work: 5, 23, 33, 76, 110, 125, 149, 154, 156, 157, 165, 176, 177, 270, 299, 304, 315, 340, 351, 353, 357, 462, 463, 472, 515, 516, 559, 585, 588, 610, 630.

Students as organizational participants: 7, 9, 18, 22, 26, 36, 107, 108, 173, 266, 347, 514, 530, 537, 539, 540, 554, 590, 604, 610, 639, 653.

Transitions and temporary systems: 38, 46, 167, 247, 431, 599, 658.

List of second and further authors, editors of books containing entered chapters, authors mentioned in abstracts or annotations, and authors of subentries. This list does not include first authors of main (numbered) entries, authors of abstracts or annotations, or authors mentioned in an entry as "see also" if the "see also" is a main (numbered) entry in this bibliography.

Aas, D. 127
Acland, H. 330
Adams, G.L. 605
Agarwala-Rogers, R. 206
Aldeg, R. 612
Alderfer, C.P. 535, 551
Aldous, J. 530
Alers, J.O. 309
Allender, J.S. 552
Allerhand, M.E. 427
Alpert, J. 544
Alwin, D.F. 444
Ames, R.E. 14, 396
Arends, J.H. 19, 20, 22, 479, 501, 507, 509, 555, 557
Arends, R.I. 18, 465, 479, 501, 507, 555, 557, 655
Aronson, E. 570
Argyle, M. 246
Argyris, C. 58, 275, 304
Atkins, S. 11, 12
Atkinson, J.W. 414, 416
Bacharach, S.B. 113, 281
Bacon, P.C. 468
Bailey, L. 121
Balderson, J.H. 454
Baldridge, J.V. 1, 31, 101, 114, 130, 172, 264, 464, 471, 586, 626
Bane, M.J. 330
Barker, R. 444
Bar-Tal, D. 332, 374, 503, 537, 563, 610
Bartunek, J.M. 349
Beady, C.H. 82
Becker, S.W. 160
Belasco, J.A. 439
Bell, C.H. 239, 354
Bell, W.E. 506, 510, 558
Benedict, B.A. 418
Benne, K.D. 166, 418
Bennis, W.G. 166, 285, 304, 418
Berchin, A. 643
Berg, D.N. 200, 442
Berlew, D. 551
Berliner, D.C. 72, 497
Berman, P. 370
Bernstein, M. 264
Bertalanffy, L. von 40
Billingsley, K. 255
Birnberg, J.G. 148
Blake, R. 275
Blanchard, K.H. 58, 301
Bonjean, C.M. 408
Boruch, R.F. 492
Boulding, K. 551
Bowen, D.D. 273
Bower, E.M. 380
Bowers, D.G. 466, 566
Bredo, E.R. 130
Bridge, R.G. 397
Bridgeman, D.L. 27
Brown, D.R. 288
Brown, L.D. 7, 242
Bryant, B.I. 118, 149
Buckley, W. 67
Burke, W.W. 185, 245, 285, 550, 556, 642
Burnham, R.A. 32
Burns, T. 121, 304
Burr, A.M. 43
Bushnell, D.S. 352
Calder, P.H. 418
Callahan, D.M. 418
Camman, C. 367
Campbell, D. 448
Campbell, E.Q. 136
Carlson, R.O. 432, 525
Carnine, D. 249
Carroll, C.F. 520
Carroll, S.J. 29
Cartwright, D. 127, 238
Chall, J.S. 391
Charters, W.W. 246, 264, 338, 464, 525, 626
Chatterjee, B.B. 246
Cherns, A.B. 165
Cheyunski, F. 35
Chin, R. 166, 418
Christie, S. 548
Christ-Whitzel, J. 194
Cinnamon, K.M. 445
Claiborn, W. 363
Clark, C. 511
Clark, D.L. 30, 421
Clark, R.A. 416
Clasby, M. 163
Cleaves, A. 310
Coates, D. 79
Coffey, H.S. 237
Cohen, D. 330, 518
Cohen, M.D. 160, 401
Cohen, R. 123, 363
Cohen, S. 520
Cohn, E. 79
Cole, S. 430
Coleman, J. 330
Coles, G.J. 109
Collier, J. 309
Collier, M. 309
Cook, M. 8
Cooke, R.A. 200, 443
Cooper, C.L. 535
Corder-Bolz, J. 408
Coughlan, R.J. 137
Cowan, M. 202
Cowden, P. 518
Crandall, D. 569
Crist, J.L. 639
Crockett, C. 73
Croft, D.B. 277, 318, 402
Crowfoot, J.E. 118
Crowson, R.L. 72
Crozier, M. 2, 304
Cummings, C.P. 392
Curtis, M.J. 533
Danoff, 109
Das, H. 449
Davis, H.J. 139
Davis, W.E. 190
Deal, T.E. 1, 31, 101, 114, 130, 131, 172, 264, 464, 471, 586, 626

DeCharms 415, 551
Deep, S.D. 624
Degener, D. 422
DellaPiana, G. 326
Demb, A. 185
Derr, C.B. 248, 530
DeVries, D. 570
Dewey, J. 70, 331
Diller, R. 228, 348
Dittrich, J.E. 638
Dobyns, H.F. 309
Donaldson, T.S. 29
Donicht, T.L. 194
Donnell, S.M. 275
Doughty, P.C. 309
Doyle, W.J. 81, 397
Duncan, O.D. 330
Duncan, R.B. 200
Eddy, W.B. 285
Edson, S.K. 525
Ehrlich, J.L. 499
Eixenberger, D.F. 194
Ely, D.P. 259
Emery, F.E. 615
Emory, R. 482
Epstein, H.T. 391
Erickson, D.A. 34, 55, 81, 136, 417, 645, 648
Etzioni, A. 606
Everett 109
Everhart, R.B. 194
Falusi, A. 197
Farrell, J.P. 9
Ferry, D.L. 622
Flanagan, J.C. 330
Flanders, N. 619, 591
Fleischauer, P.D. 656
Fleischman, E.A. 58
Flood, P.K. 82
Foa, E.B. 225
Fosmire, F. 348
Fox, R. 117, 380
Francisco, R.P. 509
Franklin, R. 236
Freeman, J.H. 280
Freire, P. 11, 12, 572, 590
French, J.R.P. 127, 551
Friend, R. 75
Fullan, M. 370
Gadon, H. 129
Gaertner, K.N. 525
Gage, N.L. 171
Gallagher, A. 432
Geffner, R. 27
Giacquinta, J.B. 264
Gilbertson, M. 525
Gintis, H. 70, 71, 330
Glass, G.V. 313
Glen, R. 157
Golembiewski, R.T. 285
Goodman, P.S. 95, 156
Goodman, S.E. 574
Goodstein, L.D. 89
Gray, H. 546
Green, P.T. 243
Greenstein, G. 302
Gregory, T.B. 585
Grodsky, M.A. 396
Gross, A.C. 470
Gross, B. 266
Gross, N. 300
Gross, T. 36
Gump, P.V. 34
Gustafson, D.H. 178
Gutkin, T.B. 541
Hackman, J.R. 350
Kaertel, G.D. 628
Hagstrom, W.. 258
Hall, F.S. 273
Hallinan, M.T. 81
Halpin, A.W. 318, 402
Hannan, C.J. 4
Hanson, R.A. 397
Hare, A.P. 540
Harman, G.S. 545
Harnischefeger, A. 640
Harris, R.T. 38
Harrison, R. 50, 551
Hartley, E.L. 127
Harvey, O.J. 571
Hasenfeld, Y. 473
Havelock, M.C. 293
Hawley, W.D. 297
Heald, K.A. 656
Hechinger, F. 297
Hersey, P.G. 58
Herzberg, F. 270, 275 315, 559, 630
Heyns, R. 330
Hill, J.P. 523
Hoban, F.J. 155
Hobson, C.J. 136
Hollister, W.G. 380
Hood, W.R. 571
Hopkins, D. 504, 505 508, 543
Hornstein, H.A. 185, 187, 285, 418, 556
House, E. 13, 370
Howard, G.S. 255
Huber, J.C. 294
Hug, H. 575
Huse, E.F. 39
Hutcheson, S.M. 110
Hutchison, B. 525
Hyman, I. 556
Hyman, R.T. 619
Illich, I. 105, 250
Intili, J-A. K. 430
Irons, R.B. 11, 12
Israel, J. 127
Jacklin, P. 525
Jennings, M.K. 660
Jensen, M.A.C. 618, 632
Johnson, D.W. 570
Johnson, F.P. 335
Johnson, M. 525
Johnson, R.T. 335, 337, 570
Jones, H.R. 218
Jones, J.E. (CEPM) 114
Jones, J.E. (Univ. Assoc.) 186, 301, 372, 477, 478 501
Jones, R.G. 645
Jordan, P. 36
Jovick, T.D. 525
Joyce, W. 615
Jung, C. 230, 482
Kaemmerer, W.F. 576
Kahn, R.L. 343
Kane, M. 370
Kanter, R.M. 599
Karuza, V. 79
Kasarda, J.D. 55
Kaul, J.D. 233
Kay, E. 127
Kehoe, E. 662
Keith, P.M. 373, 586
Kelly, J.G. 450
Kelman, H.C. 133
Kendall, A.J. 592
Kentta, W.P. 92
Keutzer, C.S. 228
Kidder, L. 79
Kiesling, H.J. 29
Kimberly, J.R. 460
Kirby, S. 127
Kirk, D.H. 459
Kolb, D.A. 49
Kouzes, J. 287, 551
Kravitz, D.A. 419
Kreisman, R.L. 349
Kulik, C-L. C. 132
Kulik, J.A. 132

Lafornara, P.A. 438
Lake, D.G. 15
Lang, J.R. 638
Langmeyer, D. 13, 556, 580
Lansky, L. 363
Lasswell, H.D. 309
Latham, G.P. 383
Lawler, E.E. 196
Lawrence, M. 511
Lawrence, P. (Toronto) 197
Lawrence, P.R. 139, 168, 612
Lazarowitz, R. 540
Leary, T.F. 45, 237
LeClere, W.E. 51
Levin,H. 60
Levine, D.U. 191
Levine, M.D. 364
Levy, B. 523
Lewicki, R.J. 273
Lieberman, A. 422
Liebowitz, S.J. 179
Likert, J.G. 375, 376
Likert, R. 58, 304, 323
Lincoln, Y.S. 268
Lippitt, L.L. 215
Lippitt, R. 119
Litterer, J.A. 281
Litwak, E. 304
Locke, E.A. 559
Longabaugh, R. 551
Longhofer, P.D. 170
Lorentz, E. 519, 520
Lorsch, J.W. 13, 368, 612
Lortie, D. 13
Loucks, S.F. 274
Louis, K.S. 370, 575
Love, B.J. 191
Lowell, E.L. 416
Lubin, A.W. 388
Lufler, H.S. 16
Lusthaus, C.S. 440
Lusthaus, E.W. 440
Luszki, M. 229
Maccoby, E.E. 127
Madow, W.G. 186
Mahan, D.J. 81
Maier, A.A. 393
Malkas, M. 30, 124, 125, 421
Mann, D. 80, 193, 263, 282, 296, 424
March, J.G. 160
Margulies, N. 437
Marrow, A. 275
Martin, M. 643
Martin, R. 556
Maruyama, G. 337
Marx, R.W. 639
Maslow, A. 5, 275, 551
Mason, W.S. 265
Maton, K. 520
Mattox, B. 491
Maughan, B. 514
Maxwell, S.E. 255
Mayer, R. 13
Mayo, E. 75
Mazzarella, J.A. 589
McCall, K.M. 619
McClelland, D. 551
McDill, E.L. 8
McDonough, J.J. 154
McEacherns, A.W. 265
McGeever, J.M. 194
McGregor, D. 116, 255, 275, 304, 556
McIntyre, J.M. 49, 355
McKenna, J.F. 475
McKibbin, S. 30, 124, 125
McLaughlin, M.W. 52, 53, 263, 397
McLean, L. 13
McMillan, J. 539
McMullen, R. 11, 12
McPartland, J. 136
Melton, H.W. 484
Metzger, L. 575
Meyer, H. 127
Meyer, J.W. 131
Meyer, M.W. 280, 430
Meyers, E.D. 417
Meyers, J. 556
Mial, D. 389
Michelson, S. 330
Mico, P.R. 359
Milburn, J.F. 106
Miles, M.B. 56, 228, 245, 258, 264, 370, 372, 418, 432, 527, 547, 556
Milleman, M. 22
Miller, E.J. 615
Miller, F.D. 133
Miller, R.I. 361
Millikan, R.H. 545
Milstein, M.M. 36, 53, 118, 184, 245
Milsum, J.H. 364
Mirsky, A.F. 391
Mirvis, P. 200
Miskel, C. 126
Mitchell, T.R. 224
Mitzel, H.E. 551
Mohrman, A.M. 200
Mohrman, S.A. 200, 443
Mood, A.M. 136
Molloy, E.S. 157
Morrison, A. 99
Mortimore, P. 514
Mouton, J.S. 58, 59, 275
Mowday, R.T. 340
Mulford, W.R. 632
Murray, D. 558
Nadler, D.A. 367
Nathan, J. 331
Nelson, D. 337
Nelson, J.E. 548
Nelson, J.R. 127
Nelson, R.H. 84
Nelson, S.D. 98
Newcomb, T.M. 127
Newman, A.J. 297, 640
Nielsen, W.R. 468
Nock, S.L. 588
Nolan, R.R. 173
Novotney, J.M. 620
Nutt, S.C. 174
Nystrom, P.C. 298
Oldham, G.R. 270, 350
Oldfield, S. 511
Olsen, J.P. 160, 401
Orlosky, D.E. 542
Ossorio, A.G. 237
Ouston, J. 514
Packard, J. 526
Paddock, S. 526
Patterson, K. 487
Pavett, C.M. 365
Peach, J.W. 199
Peak, G.W. 660
Pellegrin, R.J. 115, 352, 432
Pelz, D.C. 472
Pennings, J.M. 95, 156
Peterson, S.M. 206
Pfeffer, J. 515, 516
Pfeiffer, J.W. 286, 301, 372, 501
Phelps, J.H. 21
Piaget, J. 373, 391
Piele, P.K. 583
Pierce, D.R. 194
Pincus, J. 29
Pitcher, B.L. 233

Pitner, N.J. 525
Polito, J. 662
Pomfret, A. 244
Porras, J.I. 493
Porter, L.W. 242
Porterfield, I.J. 488
Powers, B. 163
Pratt, H. 385
Presthus, R. 304
Proshansky, H. 127
Pucik, V. 290
Pugh, R.C. 585
Putnam, R.R. 647
Rabinowitz, S. 340
Rabinowitz, V.C. 79
Raia, A.P. 404
Rappaport, D. 352
Rausch, H.L. 269, 346
Raven, B.H. 238, 551
Reddin, W.J. 58
Reddy, W.B. 363, 441
Red, J.S. 321
Reimer, E. 105
Reinhard, D. 655
Reisman, J. 662
Reynolds, C.R. 541
Rice, A.K. 615
Richards, A.K. 175
Rider, M. 511
Rigsby, L.C. 417
Ritvo, M. 230
Roark, A.E. 190
Rodabaugh. 109
Roethlisberger, F.J. 75
Rogers, E.M. 432
Rose, D. 642
Rosenberg, H.R. 435
Rosensweig, M.R. 242
Ross, I.C. 127
Rowan, B. 428, 429
Rubin, I.M. 49, 355
Runkel, M. 510, 558
Runkel, P.J. 246, 248, 479, 549, 550, 551, 556, 557, 558, 580, 591
Saal, F.E. 340
Saari, L.M. 383, 473
Salancik, G.R. 49
Saleh, S.D. 340
Santiago-Wolpow, N. 11, 12
Sashkin, M. 446
Saxe, L. 332, 374 503, 537, 563, 610
Schaefer, E.S. 45, 523
Schiavo, R.S. 419
Schiller, D. 628
Schlaifer, R. 233
Schmuck, P.A. 552, 553, 554
Schmuck, R.A. 18, 22, 56, 119, 228, 229, 230, 231, 248, 258, 380, 418, 479, 501, 507, 508, 509, 564, 580
Schneider, J.M. 82
Scholl, R.W. 405
Schon, D. 25
Schutz, R.E. 282, 397
Schutz, W.C. 372
Schwartz, M. 558
Schweitzer, J.H. 82
Scott, W.R. 131, 430
Sealey, L. 13
Seeman, M. 567
Seidenberg, B. 127
Sekaran, U. 340
Shakeshaft, C. 525
Sharan, S. 540
Shaw, K.N. 383
Shaycroft. 109
Sherif, C.W. 571
Sherwood, J.J. 467, 652
Sieber, S. 370
Silberman, M.L. 552
Skon, L. 337
Slater, P.E. 46
Slavin, R.E. 188, 189 570
Sloane, H.N. 326
Smith, B. 441
Smith, D. 441
Smith, L.M. 373
Smith, M. 330
Smith, M.A. 558
Smith, M.D. 348
Smith, W. 11, 12
Smyth, P. 127
Snowden, L.R. 450
Solem, A.R. 393
Spady, W. 60
Stalker, G.M. 304
Stambaugh, R.J. 99
Stanley, J. 448
Staw, B.M. 49
Steefel, N. 564
Stockard, J. 525
Story, R. 612
Strober, M.H. 525
Subkoviak, M.J. 16
Susman, G.I. 615
Swanson, G.E. 127
Taylor, F. 304
Taylor, G. 245
Taylor, S.H. 252
Temkin, S. 392
Terborg, J.R. 255
Teresa, J.G. 499
Todd, W.M. 279
Toeffer, R.M. 194
Tucker, H.J. 661
Tuckman, B.W. 511, 632
Tull, M.J. 289
Tyack, D.B. 525
Vaill, P.B. 453
Vallee, J.M. 632
Van De Ven, A.H. 178, 615
Van Egmond, E. 230
Van Houten, D.R. 2
van Meter, E. 126
Vasquez, M.C. 309
Vladeck, B.C. 656
Vogel, M.E. 656
Von Broembsen, M.H. 261
Vroman, H.W. 637
Walberg,H.J. 459
Wall, C.C. 643
Wallin, E. 48
Wardwell, W.I. 233
Warwick, D.P. 629
Waters, C.W. 630
Watkins, J.F. 248
Watson, D. 484
Webb, C. 540
Weber, M. 304
Weick, K. 160
Weil, R. 227
Weinfeld, F.D. 136
Weisz, J.R. 602
Wells, H.C. 96
Wheatley, M. 525
White, B.J. 571
Wideen, M. 504, 505, 508, 543
Wigdor, L.A. 315
Willems, E.P. 34, 269, 346
Williams, M.S. 59, 276

Wilpert, B. 159
Wilson, L.A. 661
Wiseman, J. 22
Wisenbaker, J.M. 82
Wittrock, M.C. 391
Wolman, B.B. 534
Woodworth, R.T. 354
Wright, C.R. 321
Wright, P.L. 405
Wyant, S.H. 44, 510, 525, 558
Yalom, I.D. 372
Yanoff, J.M. 552
Yeager, S. 255
Yetton, P.W. 625
York, R.L. 136
Zaltman, G. 200
Zander, A. 127
Zeigler, L.H. 616
Zimmerman, S. 294
Zins, J.E. 533